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ENGLISH LANGUAGE: ITS HISTORY AND STRUCTURE.

BY

W. H. LOW, M.A. LOND.

AUTHOR OF "THE INTERMEDIATE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE."

FOURTH EDITION, REVISED.



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PREFACE.

THE paragraphs of this book printed in the larger type cover the more elementary parts of the subject, and are meant to form a first course; together with the paragraphs in smaller type to which no asterisk is prefixed they should be found sufficient to cover the requirements of the London University Matriculation Examination. The passages marked with an asterisk are somewhat more advanced than the rest of the book, and may be omitted on a first reading.

The writer desires here to acknowledge his indebtedness to Professor Skeat's *Principles of Etymology*, from which and from Koch a very large number of the examples are taken; he has also made much use in certain parts of the book of Whitney's *German Grammar*, of Dr. Wright's *Gothic Primer* (for Grimm's Law), of Brachet's *French Grammar*, and of Miss Soames' *Introduction to the Study of Phonetics*. Professor Skeat's Dictionary has been constantly employed. It is to the author a matter of regret that Dr. Sweet's luminous *New English Grammar* did not appear till after the whole of this book was in type; he has, however, made here and there a few alterations suggested by a perusal of it. Many other books have of course been consulted, but he believes there is none besides those named to which he is under any considerable obligations.

ABBREVIATIONS.

Most of these, such as *adj.* for adjective, *vb.* for verb, etc., are not given here, as they cannot but be understood; others are—

<i>A.F.</i> for Anglo-French.	<i>M.E.</i> for Middle English.
<i>Ger.</i> „ German.	<i>O.F.</i> „ Old French.
<i>I.E.</i> „ Indo-European.	<i>Pop.</i> „ Popular.
<i>L.L.</i> „ Late or Low Latin.	<i>R.</i> „ Romance.
<i>O.E.</i> „ Old English.	<i>Teut.</i> „ Teutonic.

SYMBOLS.

> [“greater than”] is used for “becomes,” “passes into,” “gives as a derivative,” etc.

< [“less than”] is used for “comes from,” “is derived from,” etc.

+ is used for “in combination with,” “together with.”

For the letters þ, ð, ȝ, see § 23.

THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE:
ITS HISTORY AND STRUCTURE.

CHAPTER I.

THE RELATION OF ENGLISH TO OTHER LANGUAGES BY
ITS ORIGIN.

§ 1. Englisc.—About the middle of the fifth century invaders from the shores of the North Sea began to seek Britain and settle it by colonisation and conquest. The settlers were men of various closely-connected Low German tribes, prominent among whom were the "Engle" or Angles. From their name, the language spoken by the Germanic conquerors of Britain became known as "Englisc," or (as we now pronounce it) English. That language is the foundation or backbone of the English of to-day.

(a) The immigrants appear to have been mainly Angles (*i.e.*, inhabitants of Angel—now Angeln—in Schleswig), Saxons (whose name is retained in German Saxony and in English Sussex, Essex, Middlesex, *i.e.*, South Saxons, East Saxons, etc.), and Jutes, (who came from a district somewhat to the north of the Angles now known as Jutland, *i.e.*, Juteland). In the oldest English the existence of different dialects has been inferred by scholars, though there are no written specimens for some three centuries after the invasion; the chief of these dialects are the Northumbrian, Mercian (Midland), and West Saxon (in the West and South); Northumbrian and Mercian are the *Anglian* dialects; *Saxon* is represented in literature by the West Saxon. The Kentish dialect was (perhaps) Jutic.

(b) Literature first flourished in the North, and therefore among Angles, whence the name "Englisc" or English became used as a general term for the speech of Angles, Saxons, etc., in contradistinction to Latin, Celtic, Norse; after the Scandinavian invasions stamped out the Northern culture, and the South became the home of letters (especially under Alfred and his successors), the name English was still used for the language, though the literary dialect was now West Saxon.

§ 2. The Nearest Relatives of English.—There were other Low German peoples left behind on the mainland, and their languages were closely akin to that of the invaders of Britain; Dutch and Frisian are the chief survivors of these, and they constitute with English the so-called "Low German" group. But various other tribes or nations also spoke Germanic tongues of common origin with these, though they differed from them more widely than these differed from one another; thus we have the Scandinavian group (Norse, Danish, Icelandic, Swedish), High German (the language of modern Germany), and Gothic. All these tongues, together with some dialects of minor importance, constitute the Germanic or "Teutonic" [see *a* below] group of languages; a tabular view of their relationships is given below [§ 4].

(a) As the word "German" is generally used in common speech to signify modern High German, it is preferable to use Teutonic in the wider sense. N.B.—By German (or Ger.) henceforth throughout this book is signified modern High German unless the contrary is explicitly stated. Teutonic (or Teut.) refers to any or all of the languages classed above as Teutonic or Germanic, or to the parent language.

* (b) The word Teutonic is derived from a Latinised form (adj., *Teutonicus*, from *Teutones*, "Teutons") of a Teutonic word meaning "people"; this is in Gothic *þiuda*, in O.E. *þeod*. The Mid High Ger. form of this word, with an adjective suffix, is *diut-isk*, whence Ger. *deutsch* (= "German") and Engl. *Dutch*. The derivation of "German" (which the Germans do not use, except in the wider sense of Teuton) is doubtful; we have it from a late Latin "Germanus," which is perhaps from a Celtic word.

§ 3. Other Relatives of English.—Just as English, German, Dutch, Norse, and other languages have been grouped together as close connections by birth, so have various other tongues been similarly grouped, and in several of these we shall find we are interested. Thus, for instance, there are the Celtic, the Italic, the Slavonic groups or families. Further, just as the various languages which make up a given group may be regarded as dialects of a single original common tongue, so, too, may the various common tongues, each representing one of these groups, be regarded again as dialects of one common tongue. We know, for instance, that in comparatively modern times, French, Italian, and Spanish have been developed out of spoken Latin, widely as they may, at first sight, appear to differ from it in many ways. We have reason to believe that in somewhat similar ways all the languages grouped as Teutonic were developed out of one primitive Teutonic tongue; and that likewise Irish, Scotch, and the language of the Britons proceed from a primitive Celtic tongue, and so on. Further, the investigations of philologists teach us that the primitive Italic, Celtic, Teutonic, and many others were evolved in the remote past from a common type of speech; to this the convenient descriptive name Indo-European is generally given. *or Aryan*

(a) One of the chief distinctions which mark off the Teutonic languages from the other Indo-European ones lies in the way in which the former shifted the mutes. Another is the formation and use of a verbal conjugation having a preterite and past participle with dental suffixes—the weak conjugation.

* (b) One of the chief distinctions which mark off High German from the other Teutonic languages lies in the fact that the mutes in the former have generally progressed a stage farther than in the latter [Ch. v.].

§ 4. A general view of the relationships between the chief members of the Indo-European family of languages is easily obtained from a table such as the following:—

TABLE OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES.

INDO-EUROPEAN (or Aryan).	<u>Asiatic</u>	<u>Indian group</u> , including Sanskrit (dead), and several spoken languages of India.
		<u>Iranian group</u> , including Persian, <u>Armenian</u> .
	<u>European</u>	<u>Hellenic group</u> , including Classic Greek, and all Greek dialects.
		<u>Italic group</u> , including Classic Latin, and popular spoken Latin, with its offspring, <u>the Romance Languages</u> , viz. :— <u>French</u> , <u>Italian</u> , <u>Spanish</u> , <u>Portuguese</u> , <u>Roumanian</u> , etc.
		<u>Celtic group</u> , including British and Cornish (dead), Cymric (Welsh), Breton, Erse (Irish), <u>Gaelic (Scotch)</u> , <u>Manx</u> .
		<u>Slavonic and Baltic group</u> , including Russian, Polish, Czech (Bohemian); Old Prussian (dead), Lithuanian, etc.
		<u>Teutonic group</u> , including English, German, Norse, etc., given in detail below.

TABLE OF THE TEUTONIC GROUP OF LANGUAGES.

TEUTONIC (or Germanic).	<u>East Teutonic Division.</u>	<u>Gothic</u> (dead).
		<u>Scandinavian</u> , including Norse, Icelandic, Swedish, Danish.
	<u>Western Teutonic Division.</u>	Low German, including English, Dutch, Frisian, etc. <u>High German</u> , of which the only existing representative is always known as "German."

CHAPTER II.

SURVEY OF THE CHIEF CHANGES THAT HAVE TAKEN PLACE IN THE GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH.

§ 5. Decay of the Flexional System. Although, as has been said, the language spoken by the Anglo-Saxons is the basis of modern English, yet the latter at first sight seems to have very little in common with it. The main causes that have brought this about are two: the vocabulary has been ever growing bigger and more heterogeneous owing mainly to the influence of other nations upon us [Ch. iii.]; the flexional system has been ever decaying and becoming simpler, until it has well-nigh disappeared. It is with this latter cause that we are mainly occupied in this chapter, and the statement concerning it in the preceding sentence is of such importance that it may be well to state it again somewhat more fully and call particular attention to it:—

A tendency to simplify its inflexional system has been exhibited by English during the whole period of its existence: and this natural tendency, aided by certain external influences (§ 10), has converted it from a tongue which employed many distinctive flexions into one which has extremely few.

(a) A language which expresses grammatical relationships mainly by flexion is called *synthetic* (*συν*-, "with," "together"; *τίθημι*, "put"). A language which uses auxiliary independent words in place of flexion is sometimes called *analytic* (*ἀνα*-, "back," "un-"; *λύω*, "loose"). Thus for instance in Latin, which is synthetic, if we say *using separate words*

am-o puer-i bon-i patr-em,

we inflect each word, the -o telling us that a verbal form in the first

person singular present indicative is being used, the *-em* showing us that *paterem* is employed as a direct object and so forth; but in the English equivalent

I love the good boy's father

there is only one inflected word, and even that would be avoided in speech if the speaker did not suppose his hearer to know in advance whether one boy or more [i.e. *boy's* or *boys'*] were meant; but there is no distinction in form between *love*, 1st pers. sing. present indic., as used here, and *love*, 1st or 2nd or 3rd pers. plur. present indic., imperative, infinitive, and substantive: similarly the form in no way indicates to us that *father* is (here) direct object, or that *good* refers to *boy*. Hence besides using auxiliary words to make up for want of flexions (cf. *am-abo* and *I will love*), a non-synthetic language admits of less elasticity in the positions that words may occupy: *John loves Susan* is by no means the same as *Susan loves John*, while *Susan John loves* is inadmissible in prose and ambiguous in verse [but in Latin we may say *Balbus amat Iuliam*, *Balbus Iuliam amat*, *Amat Balbus Iuliam*, *Amat Iuliam Balbus*, *Iuliam Balbus amat*, *Iuliam amat Balbus*].

(b) In O.E., however, *I love the father of the good boy* shows the synthetic forms:—*ic lufig-e þo-ne faeder þae-s gôd-an cnap-an*; cp. Ger.: *ich liebe den Vater des guten Knaben*.

§ 6. Three well-marked stages are to be distinguished in this progress from the inflected or synthetic structure to the analytic (§ 5a).

OLD ENGLISH (O.E.) is the era of full inflexions: *-as*, *-an*, *-um*, *-ode*, *-a*, *-u*, *-e*, etc.

MIDDLE ENGLISH (M.E.) is the era of levelled or weakened inflexions, in which the old flexional vowels were reduced to *-e*.

MODERN ENGLISH is the era of vanished inflexions, in which the Middle English *-e* disappears wherever possible from pronunciation, while consorantal flexions disappear except in a few cases.

§ 7. The passage from O.E. to M.E., and again from M.E. to Modern English, was of course not effected suddenly or deliberately; the termination *-as*, for instance, in the

nom. plural of nouns did not at once pass into the *-es* of Middle English, nor did this immediately pass into the *-s* of to-day. There was a period in which the two forms *-as* and *-es* existed side by side, until the latter finally prevailed, and so similarly there was a period where *-es* struggled with *-s* before giving way. To these periods the convenient name of "Transition" is given, and if we assign to each of them a range of about a century, we may draw out the following table to illustrate the changes which we have been considering: the dates assigned, however, are necessarily only rough approximations to the truth, for there is no such thing as sudden change in the structure of a language, but only growth; moreover in different areas the development was not of equal rapidity. These dates apply (roughly) to East Midland English, the parent of our modern literary dialect.

§ 8.

Name of Period.	Limits.	Flexions.	Remarks.
OLD ENGLISH .	to 1100	Full . . .	to about the end of generation alive at the N. Conquest.
1st Transition	1100 to 1200	Full and a Weakened	a century onward.
MIDDLE ENGLISH .	1200 to 1400	Levelled . .	Chaucer died 1400.
2nd Transition	1400 to 1500	Levelled and a Vanished	a century onward.
MODERN ENGLISH .	from about 1500	Vanished . .	introduction of printing, 1476.

§ 9. If we desire typical examples of the three stages we might take—

O.E.	leorn-i-an (<i>inf.</i>)	sun-u	hund-as.
M.E.	lern-en	son-e	hund-es.
Modern.	learn	son	hound-s.

§ 10. Foreign Influences.—We have treated the decay of the flexional system and its replacement by the analytic as mainly due to a tendency inherent in the language, and we are justified in so doing both by the history of Old English before it was appreciably affected by foreign influences, and by the history of cognate Teutonic tongues, which exhibit the effects of the same tendency without those external causes which have affected English. The progress of the movement, however, was undoubtedly facilitated by the Scandinavian invasions of the ninth and following two centuries which did much to unsettle the English flexional system, especially in East Anglia and Northumbria, and by the Norman Conquest, which was the cause of English being spoken in the generations following it with a large admixture of Romance words and an increasing disregard for the nice distinctions of Teutonic grammar. We proceed to deal more fully with these foreign influences in describing the sources of the vocabulary of modern English in the next chapter. But it may be well to point out here that, whatever influence foreign tongues may have exerted in assisting the tendency of the inflexions to become levelled, in no case have they been the cause of giving us any new inflexion or method of inflexion; all the inflexions used in English are native English, and therefore of course Teutonic.

Possibly the employment of *-s*, *-es* for the plural of (nearly) all nouns was somewhat assisted by the French usage which also employed the same suffix (though of quite different history); the *-s* plural noun flexion is of course English (O.E. *-as*), but it was only one among many varieties formerly employed.

CHAPTER III.

THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER LANGUAGES UPON ENGLISH— SOURCES OF OUR VOCABULARY.

§ 11. BEARING in mind what has been said as to the gradual process from the flexional to the analytic stage, we may now study the evolution of modern English chiefly with regard to its vocabulary. Here we have mainly to follow the course of the nation's history.

§ 12. Earliest Foreign Elements. Until the invasion of Britain we suppose the language of Angles and Saxons to have been purely Teutonic in vocabulary, with the trifling exception of a very few Latin words used by them and other German tribes on the Continent. The Anglo-Saxons harried, displaced and absorbed the Celtic inhabitants of a *Celtic* great part of Britain, and from them adopted a few Celtic words, as well as a little of the Latin known to the Britons, who had long been under Roman sway. Christianity was preached to the English by Roman missionaries (Augustine's mission, 597 A.D.), and this was the beginning of the first *Latin* considerable influx of Latin words, the words so introduced being in the first place those connected with ecclesiastical usages, several of them being therefore ultimately of Greek *orig.* origin; from the ninth century and onwards there was also a considerable amount of translation from Latin originals, by which means some more Latin words were introduced. The words thus brought into Old English are known as "Latin of the second period," those learned on the Continent or from the Britons being "Latin of the first period."

(a) The number of first and second period Latin words together—often not to be accurately distinguished—is probably not a couple of hundred, and of these a considerable number has perished and since been re-introduced in forms which show us that we have not got them direct from Old English.

§ 13. Scandinavian.—The Scandinavian invasions of the ninth and following centuries culminating in the ascendancy of a Norse dynasty over all England half a century before the Norman Conquest caused the introduction of a number of Scandinavian words, especially in East-Anglia and Northumbria; some of these are easily distinguished and are given in the list below, but in other cases it is extremely doubtful whether a word is of Norse or native English origin, the two languages being closely akin by birth (§ 2) and strikingly alike in their Teutonic vocabulary at this period. A more important effect of the Norse invasions on the language was the influence it had on the inflexional system of which we have already spoken (§ 10).

§ 14. The Normans (Anglo-French).—Some other words of Latin origin may have reached us before the Conquest through the medium of the Normans, with whom the later Saxon kings (notably Edward the Confessor) had intimate relations. These Normans or Northmen had raided upon France and settled there, much as their kin had done in England: brought in contact, however, with a Romance-speaking nation, they had practically abandoned their own tongue, and spoke French, the dialect of it used by them being known as Norman-French. The Conquest of England by the Normans, which we date from the battle of Hastings, established Norman-French as the language of the ruling classes—court, king, nobility, priesthood—and of literature; English, of course, never ceased to be spoken, but it was now the language of a subject people, and was no longer cultivated as a literary medium, so that its vocabulary was reduced to the small modicum necessary for ordinary purposes in the lower walks of life. Yet it was the tongue of the conquered that was destined to survive enriched with vast borrowings from the conquerors' language, which itself finally disappeared before the end of the fourteenth century. *XIVth cen.*

The beginning of the great influx of Norman-French (or, more correctly, Anglo-French) words into English makes itself first noticeable in the scanty remains of the English writings of the twelfth century; and from this time onwards to the time when Anglo-French was itself dying out (some-what before 1400), the borrowing from Anglo-French went on to a vast extent, so that by the time when business in the law-courts was first allowed to be conducted in English (1362), and when children were first taught in school through the medium of English (1385) instead of Anglo-French, English had become a thoroughly composite language, having grafted upon the Teutonic stock a large number of words of Romance origin, which it inflected and used precisely as if they were native, and to which it imparted an appearance and form that seem at first sight thoroughly English, so that only to the trained eye or ear of the philologist do they appear at all foreign.

(a) A descendant of Norman-French survives on British soil in the Channel Islands.

§ 15. Continental French in Middle English.—Besides the influx of Anglo-French, there was another source whence French words were introduced into Middle English. This is continental French, which was spoken by the early Plantagenet kings and their courts, and was the medium of a literature which powerfully influenced our writers, especially during the fourteenth century and after. Hence French words were adopted into English; later borrowings, even when coined directly from Latin, have usually been formed on the models of these.

§ 16. Revival of Learning.—The borrowing and coinage of words of Latin origin was greatly increased by the revival of the study of the classics and the Renaissance of Literature in the sixteenth century, and by the increased interest displayed in theology, arts, and science which accompanied it; nor has the coinage ever ceased—it was particularly active in the seventeenth century—and it is not likely to do so entirely while new words are required for new ideas and can easily be formed from the dead languages

on the model of earlier examples, adopted in the Middle English period. It is important to notice that the later borrowings (with some inconsiderable exceptions) shape themselves on the model of words thus taken centuries ago from Latin through the medium of Old French, even where they do not happen to have passed through French at all and are quite modern in their formation; *hypnotist*, *theosophy*, for instance, are creations of yesterday, and the latter a mere English coinage—yet the form is the same as if they had been Greek formations transliterated into Latin, thence borrowed by French and so taken into English, perhaps as far back as the fourteenth century—as we see if we compare *baptist*, *philosophy* with them.

(a) There is nothing [as Dr. Murray points out] in *procession* and *progression* to show that one is eleventh century, the other sixteenth. . . . Even *photograph*, *geology*, *telephones* have the form they would have had if they had been living words in the mouths of Greeks, Latins, French, and English from the beginning, instead of formations of the nineteenth century: *evangelist*, *astronomy*, *dialogue* are words which have so lived, their present form being the result. *Photograph*, etc., take their form as if they had so lived.

§ 17. Comparison of the Native Teutonic with the Romance Element in English.—No other language has had an influence upon our vocabulary in any way comparable to that of Latin, which (mainly, of course, *via* French) has given us a supply of words that far outnumber the native Teutonic store; at least, such we shall find to be the case if we consult a dictionary, where each word is entered only once and where the abstruse and the familiar alike rank as equal; but in writing and in actual speech each of us uses only a certain proportion of all the great mass of words in the language, and this proportion, be it as small as that of the peasant or as considerable as that of Shakespeare, contains practically *all* the living native Teutonic element; and this is *one* of the reasons that justify us in regarding the composite English of the nineteenth century as Low German, not Romance. The words which we all use and must use, and without which

it is difficult to frame a couple of consecutive sentences, are all native, and essentially the same words as our Low German foregoers used in the England of Alfred, in the Britain of the Celts, and on the mainland of Europe; hence, even from considerations of *vocabulary* alone, we should be justified in regarding spoken English as a Low German language. But in the classification of languages, structure is of more importance than vocabulary—shape and form rather than stuff and colour—and this as we have seen (§ 10) is pure Teutonic in our tongue. Let us observe here that one effect of all our flexions being native is to create a hybrid—i.e., a word containing elements from more than one language—out of every non-native word which exhibits flexions: thus, for instance, *rive* is Old Norse, *invention* French, *yacht* Dutch; but since these are fully naturalised English we can inflect them, thereby immediately adding an English element as in *riv-en*, *invention-s*, *yacht-ing*.

§ 18. The subject of the native constituents of modern English is so interesting and important that we shall do well to examine them a little more closely in contrast with the Romance elements. To begin with let us notice that Romance words consist almost entirely of "presentive" words; that is to say, of words which call up some definite conception to the mind (nouns, verbs, adjectives), while the "symbolic" or relational words, the absolutely necessary links of speech which only have meaning in connection with other words, are practically all Teutonic; but a considerable proportion of the "presentive" class, especially such as are most necessary and common in everyday affairs, are also Teutonic.

In the following section an attempt is made to present a simple classification of the Teutonic elements of the vocabulary. Adverbs are omitted here as a separate part of speech, falling under the head either of conjunctions or prepositions, or being obviously derived from other parts of speech; see §§ 204-8.

§ 19. Teutonic are

(i) all inflexions ;

N.B.—All words of whatever kind containing a mutated vowel (§ 63), the process of mutation having disappeared from English before the blending of Anglo-French with the native element.

(ii) all pronouns ;

(iii) all numerals, except the adjective *second*, which has replaced *other* when more than two things are discussed, and *dozen*, *million*, *billion* which are Romance ;

(iv) all genuine conjunctions and prepositions : e.g. *and*, *in*, *but* ; but other parts of speech or combinations used in place of these are often Romance or hybrid : e.g. *except*, *provided*, *granting*, *considering*, *because*, *during*, etc. (§§ 214-215) ;

(v) all genuine interjections or natural expressions of emotion by a mere cry ;

(a) but some words of this class originally presentive are now so used symbolically : *alas* is the chief Romance form now used as an interjection (§ 221).

(vi) Onomatopœic words, *i.e.*, words which endeavour to imitate by sound the thing they name, such as *coo*, *buzz*, *hiss*, *hush* ;

(a) But words formed originally by this process in other tongues have also been borrowed like others by English, e.g. *murmur* (< F. < L.), *barbarous* < L. *barbarus* < Gk. *βάρβαρος*, "foreign"—one who says *βαρ-βαρ*.

(vii) Several living suffixes and prefixes, such as *-ness*, *-ly*, *-er*, *un-*, as well of course as many no longer living. [By "living" is meant such as are still used to form new words.] But several common living affixes are foreign : e.g. *ante-*, *in-*, *-ity*, *-ess* (fem.), *-ism* (Gk.), *-ize* (Gk.), *-ist* (Gk.).

(viii) Verbs.

All the auxiliaries are Teutonic (symbolic and indispensable, § 18).

Also all strong verbs (including those once strong but now weak, see §§ 168-171) and their derivatives (§ 188);

(a) and all verbs with mutated present stems, such as *think, sell*, etc. (see § 175).

Of other verbs, many such as denote the commonest or most necessary actions, states, etc., and therefore could scarcely have become so little used by the English as to give way to foreign intruders, are Teutonic: such are, for instance (beside those included in the classes indicated above, among which are e.g. *eat, drink, sing, sleep, go, do, run, bite, wake, bear*), *make, live, wend, fill, kiss, greet, learn, work, clothe, weigh, wish, send, till, stir, live, dwell, heal, name, listen, cleanse, feed*.

But examples of French verbs (especially early borrowings), which replace or exist side by side with native ones, are common enough, e.g. *move, suffer, rest, turn, fail, join, please, preach, cook, state, view*.

There is a vast number of other French verbs in English, especially among those more particularly associated with higher culture of various kinds, e.g. *evolve, operate, quote, stupefy, induce, exhort, cultivate, summon*.

(a) Cp. *exist* (Romance) with *be* (Teut.), *commence* (R.) with *begin* (T.), *tolerate* (R.) with *bear* (T.), *meditate* (R.) and *ponder* (R.) with *think* (T.).

(ix) Adjectives.

Besides the pronominal and numeral (see ii. and iii. above), to the native element belong most of those which denote common qualities (cp. viii. above): e.g. *red, black, white, green, little, strong, weak, short, good, better, best, bad, near, far, bright, slow, quick, fast, loose*. But French are the monosyllabic *large, long, brief, curt, false, coy, sage, frail*, with many more; and (mostly of later origin) a very large number of others, such as *quiet, cruel, jealous, equal, stupid, fragile, amiable, dependent, regal*.

(a) Cp. *ancient* (Romance) and *old* (Teut.), *mute* (R.) and *dumb* (T.), *false* (R.) and *untrue* (T.), *sage* (R.) and *wise* (T.).

(x) Nouns.

As with verbs and adjectives, many of the indispensable and most common are Teutonic: e.g.—

"Natural" features—*earth, sea, water, land, heavens, stone, sand*. But *air* is Romance (<F. *air*, <L. *aer*, <Gk. *ἀήρ*).

Names of beings, common family relationships, etc.—*man, woman, child, father, mother, daughter, son, brother, sister, husband, wife*. But Romance are *aunt* (<O.F. *ante* [now *tante*], <L. *amita*), *cousin* (<F. *cousin*, <L. *consobrinus*), *uncle* (<F. *oncle*, <L. *avunculus* "uncle," diminutive of *avus*, "grandfather").

Names of many familiar creatures—*cow, ox, hound, pig, fish, fly, horse, sheep, calf*. But Romance are *beef* (<F. *bœuf*, <L. *bovem*, acc. of *bos*, "ox"), *pork* (<F. *porc*, <L. *porcus*, "pig"), *mutton* (<F. *mouton*), *veal* (<O.F. *veël* [now *veau*], <L. *vitellus*, diminutive of *vitulus*, "calf"), etc.

Names of trades, callings, professions, etc., are nearly all Romance, with, as might be expected, the exception of a few humble and indispensable ones: thus, *baker, ploughman, smith* are Teutonic, but Romance are *butcher, grocer* (i.e. *grosser*, "one who deals wholesale or in gross," <F. *grossier* < *gros*, "great," <L.L. *grossus*, "big," "fat"), *tailor* (<F. *tailleur* < *tailler*, "to cut"), *chandler* (<F. *chandelier* < pop. L. *candelarius* < L. *candela*, "candle"): and Romance of course are *advocate, solicitor, barrister, tutor, accountant, professor, author, poet, parson, curate, editor, general, colonel, captain, lieutenant, doctor, surgeon*.

Further, Romance is the greater part of our nouns denoting things not absolutely indispensable for every-day life, including a vast number of abstract nouns, of terms connected with art, literature, and science, theology, etc. These are so numerous that it is scarcely worth while giving examples; in the sentences just written, for instance (beginning with "Further," six lines above), the following nouns and adjectives are Romance: *Romance, part, nouns, indispensable, vast, number, abstract, terms, art, literature, science, theology* (Gk.), *numerous, examples* (and *denoting, including, connected*); but notice the Teutonic nouns, *things, day, life, while*.

§ 20. A striking proof of the ubiquitousness of the native element in English will be seen if we attempt to construct sentences which contain no Teutonic words; it can be done, but it is extremely difficult, while it is almost impossible to write a paragraph of half a dozen lines under the same conditions, inasmuch as we are deprived of the use of articles, auxiliaries, conjunctions, pronouns, etc.; moreover the Teutonic element is almost certain to assert itself in some necessary inflexion.

(a) e.g. "Stupidity perpetually claims attention. Terrible accidents occur frequently during theatrical proceedings; extraordinary activity prevents similar ridiculous panic." Perhaps an imperative sentence is the most we can do without any Teutonic element at all—e.g. "Triumph gross stupidity, silence acute perception!"—and even here this is only due to the decay of our inflexional system. On the other hand, it is possible to write many pages without necessarily using Romance words; but it is not natural or easy for us to do so, and we cannot do it without circumlocution or straining, when the matter does not deal with bare and simple statement of common facts. As an example, we might observe the first three stanzas of Gray's Elegy, in which the diction is remarkably simple: yet here there are Romance words (in italics below) which could not easily be removed and replaced by equivalent Teutonic substitutes:—

"The *curfew* tolls the knell of *parting* day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the *lea*,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

"Now *fades* the glimmering landscape on the sight,
And all the *air* a *solemn* stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his droning flight,
And drowsy tinklings lull the *distant* folds:

"*Save* that from yonder ivy-mantled *tower*
The moping owl doth to the moon *complain*
Of such as, wandering near her *secret* bower,
Molest her *ancient*, *solitary* reign."

(b) Apart from the classification by meaning and function, the mere form will also often help us to recognise that a word is Teutonic. Thus, for instance, all stems showing gradation [§ 61]

or mutated vowels [§ 63] are Teutonic; so also nearly all words beginning with *w*, which is unknown to French and Latin, and all beginning with *wh*: nearly all containing *gh* or beginning with *y*. On the other hand, words beginning with *j* are (with very few exceptions) not native—as, e.g. *judge, jury, juvenile, jelly*, etc., the O.E. consonantal *i-* or *ge-* becoming *y*—e.g. *year* from O.E. *gēar*. Of words beginning with *p* probably none is of Teutonic origin [see § 47*d* iii.]. The appearance of *th* or *dh* (§ 30) is generally a mark of English origin, the sound being unknown to French (and Latin); but a number of words containing it are Greek (and are, however, easily recognised as such), the *th* then transliterating the Greek *θ*: e.g. *theme, antipathy, ethic, æstheticism*.

§ 21. Besides the native element and the Romance drafts of various stages, there have entered into English as into England natives of almost every race under the sun: these we may deal with shortly here, though the whole subject is both large and interesting. Foreign words reach us (*a*) by direct contact with foreign peoples or (*b*) *via* literature, and there is no need for us to distinguish between the two cases here; it follows that we have got words from every nation with whom we have had intercourse in warfare, trade, diplomacy, art, science, or any other way, as well as indirectly through the medium of writings of all kinds. In the following sections (§§ 22-27) the chief of these sources are touched on, and what has been said in the previous sections is summarised.

Process going on (a) It is to be remembered that the borrowing and coinage processes are ever going on around us; *to boycott, a gladstone* (bag) are made from living persons' names just as *were to burke, a spenser* in the past: *closure*, though practically coined (or re-coined) in our days, has followed the precedent of *enclosure, exposure*, etc.: so, just as contact with Dutch seamen in the Elizabethan age and the seventeenth century gave us *boom, schooner, skipper*, modern warfare with the Dutch in South Africa in our day has taught us *boer, lager, and trek*. Foreign products at one time unknown in England have now become so familiar to us that their names are not uttered with any feeling of strangeness, e.g. *tea, coffee, potato*: with less common or more recent introductions the process of naturalisation is still going on, e.g. *banana, pimento*.

SUMMARY OF THE SOURCES OF OUR VOCABULARY WITH
SOME SELECTED EXAMPLES.

TEUTONIC.

§ 22.

(a) The native Low German Element: see §§ 18, 19.

Add a large number of the commonest place and person names [but see § 25], especially in -ham ("home": cp. Ger. "-heim"), -ton ("town"), -wich, -ford, -bridge: examples are *Mickleham*, *Birmingham*, *Hampton* (= Ham + ton, § 68), *Greenwich*, *Wallingford*, *Knightsbridge*, *Freeman*, *Smith*, *Baker*.

(b) Dutch.

(i) Many nautical terms, including *ahoy*, *aloof*, *avast*, *boom*, *cruise*, *deck*, *hoist*, *hull*, *skipper* [the native English form is *shipper*], *yacht*, *yawl*.

(ii) Some military terms and words easily connected with camp life, together with others, mainly due to English volunteers in the Low Countries during the Elizabethan period, or the Dutch merchants who settled in London about the same time, including *beleaguer*, *blunderbuss*, *knapsack*, *snaffle*, *suttler*, *trigger*, *waggon*: *boor*, *brandy*, *ledger*, *stiver*.

(iii) Others worth noticing (some may come under the above headings) are

(a) most (if not all) diminutives in *-kin*, such as *manikin*, *bumpkin*, etc.: § 126*h*.

(b) art-terms: *easel*, *landscape*.

(c) from place names: *delf* (Delft), *holland*, *cambric* (Cambrai), *spa*.

(d) *burgomaster*, *landgrave*, *margrave*, *elope*, *fop*, *frolic*, *hottentot*, *wainscot*.

Some words of continental Low German origin not strictly Dutch (Netherlands in general, Flemish, Frisian) may be reckoned in with the above.

(c) Scandinavian.

(i) Many words due to the viking raids and settlements, often not to be accurately distinguished from native words (see § 13): among those certainly of Old Norse or Danish origin are *are* (§ 176b), *both*, *fro* (cognate English *from*), *ill*, *same*, *they*, *them*, *their*, and *till* (prep.), *husband*, *dæ*, *sky*, which are remarkable as such common words and belonging to such classes [§§ 18-19] as to indicate that the Danes' speech was indeed regarded as but a particular kind of "English." Further we may mention *aye*, *fellow*, *guess*, *happy*, *happen*, *hustling*, *low*, *meek*, *odd*, *rot*, *rotten*, *sake*, *ugly*, *window—breadth*, *depth*, *length*, *width—billow*, *earl*, *raid*, *viking*, *strand*, *thrall—scant*, *score*, *skill*, *skin*, *skirt*, *skull*, and some others with initial *sk*—*bask*, *blush*, *busk* (where the final *-sk* = *sik*, reflexive pronoun)—and *-by* [= "town"], *-dale*, *-firth*, *-frith*, *-thwaite*, *-wick* in place names, such as *Grimsby*, *Clydesdale*, etc.; as also *Riding* [§ 126f].

The word *son* was used in patronymics among the Northmen (e.g. *Tyrgeasson*, *Björnson*) before it was so employed in English: probably its common employment with us (*Johnson*, *Watson*, *Simson*, etc.) was due to Northern influence; the O.E. method was by the suffix *-ing* (e.g. *Browning*).

(ii) Later borrowings from Scandinavian languages include *geysir* (Iceland.), *floe*, *fog*, and some others;

(a) but such words are few, for we have had little contact with the Scandinavians since the Danish invasions until quite recently. *Dahlia* is coined from a Swede's name (*Dahl* + pseudo-Latin ending), just as *Fuchsia* from a German's (*Fuchs*).

(b) A certain number of words of Scandinavian origin reached us through French—the Norman, it must be remembered, was a North-man.

Vryker (d) (High) German.—But very few words have been taken directly from High German; the commonest are *meerschaut*, *plunder*, *poodle*, *swindler*, *waltz*, and *Dutch* (= *Deutsch*); others are *fuchsia*, *hook* [a wine], *landau* [from place-name], *mesmerize* [person-name + *ize*, § 195], and *zinc*.

(a) Technical philological words (Germany being the cradle of scientific philology) very recently borrowed sometimes appear in English, but are scarcely adopted as English words: e.g. *Umlaut* (§ 63), *Ablaut* (§ 61).

(b) Others of High German origin have reached us at different times mainly through French, in which there is a considerable number of such words: e.g. *gay*, *marshal*, *riches*, etc. *Dollar*, *winacre* are High German words come to us via Dutch.

ROMANCE.

§ 23. (Including also words taken directly from Latin and words coined in English on the model of Latin or Romance words already naturalised.)

(a) Latin of the First and Second Periods (see § 12).

Examples are (i) *-chester*, *-caster*, *-cester* in place names¹ (e.g. *Chester*, *Cirencester*, *Lancaster*: < L. *castrum*), *-coln* in *Lincoln* (< L. *colonia*), *street* (< L. *strata via*), *wall* (< L. *vallum*), *port* (< L. *portus* "harbour": seen in place names, e.g. *Devonport*), *mile* (< L. *mille*), *pine* vb. (< L. *poena*)—these and a few others before end of sixth century.

(ii) (a) Ecclesiastical, scriptural, etc. *altar*, *ark*, *candle*,² *cowl* (< *cucullus*), *creed* (< *credo*), *disciple*, *font* and *fount* (< *font-em*), *nun* (< *nonna*), *noon* (< *nona hora*), *shrine* (< *scrinium*), *temple* (< *templum*), and several of Greek origin: see § 24, below.

(b) Miscellaneous—implements, commodities, etc. *chalk*³ (< *calc-em*), *cheese* (< *case-us*), *cook* (< *coquus*), *fever* (< *febris*), *inch* (< O.E. *ynce* with mutation from L. *uncia*: possibly belongs to "first" period), *lake* (< *lacus*), *mint* (< *moneta*), *mount* (< *mont-em*), *pea* (< *pisum*, § 106a), *pear* (< *pirum*), *pound* (< *pondus*), and several of Greek origin: see § 24, below.

All the above are nouns: verbs are *offer* (< *offerre*), *shrive* (< *scribere*), *spend* (< *dispendere*), and two or three others. *Crisp* (< *crispus*) is the only adjective.

We may note here, among words taken directly from Latin, a few nouns taken mainly in quite modern times without change of form—these are mostly technical and scientific: *appendix*, *axis*, *formula*, *fungus*, *index*, *memorandum*, *series*.

(b) French.

(i) From Norman-French as spoken in England (Anglo-French): § 14.

(ii) From Continental French, and coinages from Latin on the model of French words naturalised in English, as discussed in §§ 15-16.

(iii) From modern French (since about 1660). Here the Continental pronunciation of the symbols is frequently a guide: cp. for example, the sound of *ch* in *champagne* and in *chamber*; other instances are *amateur*, *campaign*, *critique*, *ennui*, *etiquette* (but of Germanic origin: a doublet of *ticket*), *connoisseur*, *restaurant*, *rouge*, *trousseau*.

(c) Italian.

The major part of the vocabulary of music: *duet*, *concerto*, *opera*, *piano*, *prima donna*, *quartet*, *quintet*, *semibreve*, *solo*, *sonata*, *soprano*, *trio*, etc. Also *canto* and *stanza*, *broccoli*, *cupola*, *dado*, *dilettante*, *ditto*, *macaroni*, *manifesto*, *motto*, *stileto*, *umbrella*, *volcano*.

(d) Spanish: *armada*, *flotilla*, *commodore*, *stevedore*, *comrade*, *domino*, *duenna*, *flamingo*, *merino*, *mosquito*, *negro*, *peccadillo*, *punctilio*, *quadrone*, *tornado*, *vanilla*, etc. *Sherry* is from a Spanish place name (*Xeres*). So *port* (wine) is from the Portuguese *Oporto*; other Portuguese words are *caste*, *moidore*, *molasses*, *pimento*, *fetish*, *parasol*.

§ 24. Greek.

(i) via Latin in Old English (see §§ 12, 23 (a) above): these are mostly words connected with the church, scripture, etc.: examples are *alms* (shortened from O.E. *celmesse* < L. *eleemosyna* < Gk. ἐλεημοσύνη), *angel* (< L. *angelus* < Gk. ἄγγελος, "messenger"), *anthem* (< L. *antiphona* < Gk. ἀντιφώνη—"antiphone" is its doublet), *apostle* (< *apostolus* < ἀπόστολος), *bishop* (*episcopus* < ἐπίσκοπος, "over-seer") and *archbishop* (*arch*=Gk. ἀρχι-, "chief"), *canon* (< κανών, "a rule"), *Christ* (Χριστός), *church* (older *cyrice* < L. *cyriaca* < κυριακή, "belonging to the Lord" < κύριος, "lord"), *clerk* (< *clericus* < κληρικός < κλήρος, "portion"), *deacon* (< *diaconus* < διάκονος, "servant"), *devil* (< *diabolus* <

διάβολος, "slanderer"), *martyr* (< μάρτυρ, "witness"), *minister* (< *monasterium* < μοναστήριον < μόνος, "alone": *monastery* is a doublet through French), *monk* (< *monachus* < μοναχός < μόνος), *pope* (O.E. *pāpa* < L. *papa*, < πάππας, "father"; a doublet of *papa*), *priest* (< *presbyter* < πρεσβύτερος, "elder": its doublet is *presbyter*).

Others are *anchor*, *butter*, *copper* (< κύπρος, "Cyprus"), *dish* (δίσκος: its doublet is *disc*), *paper* (< πάπυρος, "papyrus"—of Egyptian origin), *pepper*.

(a) For explanation of the term "doublet" see § 74b.

(ii) Besides these classes, Greek words which passed into Latin share the fortune of Latin words, and therefore reach us through French (as well as occasionally through other Romance languages) just as Latin words do [§§ 14-16]: examples are (A.-F.) *astronomy*, *baptize*, *bible* and (Continental French) *philosopher* [the *-er* is English agent suffix: § 126a], *sophism*, etc. Further, Greek has been constantly used and is used still for the purpose of coining words (in French or in English) referring to the sciences and arts, the model of established words being generally followed—examples (whose derivation presents no difficulty to any one with an elementary acquaintance with Greek) are *archæology*, *psychology*, *synthesis*, *thermometer*, *telephone*, *phonograph*, *chiromancy*, etc.

It will be noticed that the Greek α (rough breathing) is written in Latin, French, English *h*; υ (upsilon) is written *y*; κ is generally written *c*; α is written *æ* or *e*; ϵ and η are both written *e*; \omicron and ω both become *o*; χ is written *ch*; θ is written *th* (pron. in English like English *th* in *thin*); ϕ is written *ph* (pron. *f*) or *f*, ψ is written *ps*, ρ is written *rh* (pron. *r*).

(a) A few words of Greek origin whose etymologies are not at all obvious at first sight are worth noticing: *blame* is a doublet of *blaspheme*, *slander* of *scandal*, *palsy* of *paralysis*, *fancy* of *phantasy*;—see § 74b; *dropsy* is shortened for *hydropsy* < Gk. ὕδρωψ < ὕδωρ, "water"; *frenzy* or *phrenzy* is the Gk. φρένησις < φρήν < (stem φρεν-), "heart." *Govern* < F. *gouverner* < L. *gubernare* < Gk. κυβερνᾶν, "to steer": *surgeon* was formerly *chirurgion* < F. *chirurgien*

< F. *chirurgie*, "surgery" < Gk. *χειρουργία*, "hand-working" < *χελρ*, "hand" + *εργειν*, "work": *place* and *plate* are both (through French and Latin) from Gk. *πλατεία* fem. of *πλάτος* "broad": *ink* is the Lat. *encaustum* < *εγκαυστος*, "burnt in."

§ 25. Celtic.

(i) In O.E., and presumably learnt from the Britons (§ 12), there seem to be but very few: examples are *bannock* ("cake"), *brock* ("badger," tolerably common as person-name), *crook* ("pitcher"), *dun* (colour).

(ii) Borrowed (mainly in comparatively modern times) from Irish, Scotch, Welsh, etc.: e.g. (Erse) *bog*, *brogue*, *banshee*, *fun*, *lough*, *shamrock*, *shillelagh*, *spalpeen*, *tory*, *usquebaugh* or *whiskey*; (Gaelic) *cairn*, *claymore*, *cosy*, *crag*, *gillie*, *glen*, *loch*, *macintosh* [from person-name], *slogan*, *sporrán*; (Cymric) *flannel*, *coracle*, *kick*.

Add to these, of course, many names of natural features (notably rivers and mountains) in England, and the bulk of Welsh, Irish, and Scotch proper names: *Britain*, *Thames*, *Lomond*, *Aberystwyth*, *Mackenzie*, *O'Flaherty*.

Further we must remember that French retained some words from the Celtic vocabulary when this generally gave way to the Romance, and learned a few others perhaps at later times; hence several words which have reached us through French are to be regarded as of Celtic origin—e.g., *car*, and its derivatives *career*, *carry*, *charge*, *chariot*, are among these.

§ 26. Other Indo-European Sources (see § 4).

Sclavonic.—Russian are *drotsky*, *reuble*, *steppe*, and *ukase* [we use the Russian *czar* just as we do the German *kaiser* in English, but both these are of Latin origin < *Caesar*]; *knout* is taken by us from Russia, but is originally Scandinavian. Other Sclavonic words are *slave* (properly "a Slav," "Slavonian," used as a term of degradation, because the name of a conquered race); *cravat* (people-name = Croatian); *polka* (= Polish dance), *mazurka* (= Masovian dance).

Persian.—Among the earliest in English are: (i) *Chess* and its derivatives and terms: *check*, *échecquer*, *rook*, *hazard*. (ii) Oriental plants, etc.: *orange*, *lemon*, *peach*, *myrtle*, *lilac*, *tulip*. (iii) *Scarlet*, *azure*; *bazaar*, *caravan*, *divan*, *tiara*, *turban*, *turquoise*; *satrap*, *derrish*, *pasha*, *khedive*, *parsee*, *hourí*, *peri*; *magi*.

Sanskrit, Hindoo, etc.—A few are old in English : e.g. *hemp, pepper* (*viâ* Greek and Latin in O.E.); *beryl* [whence *brilliant*], *nard* (in Wiclif's Bible); *sugar* (in fourteenth century, *viâ* French, etc.); others are *banyan, indigo, musk*—*camphor, candy, sulphur*—*carmine, crimson, lake* (colour). Direct borrowings from India date from the middle of the last century, and are now (owing to our interest in Anglo-Indian doings) apparently on the increase : *bangle, chintz, chutney, loot, rajah, punkah, shampoo*, are examples.

But some of these latter are possibly loan words in Hindoo and not of Indo-European origin.

§ 27. Non-Indo-European.

The Semitic is the only non-Indo-European element of importance :

(i) **Hebrew** (with Aramaic, Syriac, etc.) nearly all *viâ* the Scriptures. A few are quite common (mostly early, through L.-Gk., or F.-L.-Gk.) in non-scriptural parlance : *alphabet, abbot, balsam* and *balm, camel, delta, elephant, iota* and *jot* (< *iōra*), *jubilee, sapphire, shibboleth*; others are *alleluia, amen, cherub* and *seraph, hosanna, hyssop, leviathan, manna, mammon, Messiah, rabbi, pharisee* and *sadducee, sabbath, shekel*.

From Hebrew proper names are (besides *Hebrew, Judith, Jew, Mary, Martha*, etc.) *bedlam* (< *Bethlehem*), *jesuit* (< *Jesus*), *lazar* (= "leper" < *Lazarus*), *maudlin* (i.e. *Magdalene* < *Magdala*), *simony* (< *Simon*, who "offered them money" for the Holy Ghost), *damask* and *damson* (< *Damascus* and adj. *Damascenus*).

(ii) **Arabic** [often through mediæval Spanish and French—the "al" in these words is the prefixed definite article]. *Algebra, alcohol, alkali, alcove, alkoran* or *koran*; so *alchemy* [where *-chemy* is Gk.]; *ameer, emir, admiral* (Latinised form of *ameer*)—*amber, attar* or *otto* [of roses], *coffee, gazelle, hookah, jasper, lute, myrrh, nitre, saffron, sherbet*—*cipher, nadir, zenith, zero*—*caliph, harem, magazine, Moslem* (or *Mussulman* and *Islam*), *mosque, sultan, sheik*.
Add from proper names *Muhometan, Saracen*.

Other Non-Indo-European elements are many but unimportant:—

(i) **Magyar** (spoken in Hungary) : *hussar, tokay* (from place-name), *shako* (*viâ* French).

(ii) **Turkish** : *bash* is the only quite common one; others are *ottoman* (from person-name), *janisary, bey, caviare*. Notice that *sultan, vizier*, and others that might be expected to be Turkish are of Arabic origin.

(iii) Tartar : *khan, tartar, Turk*.

Some Indian place-names used as common nouns—*calico, cashmere*.

(iv) Bengali : *tom-tom* [onomatopœic : § 19 (vi)]. Dravidian (Malayalim, Telugu, Tamil, etc.) : *betel* [nut], *araca, teak, cheroot, cooly, pariah*. Malay : *amuck, bamboo, ourang-outang, sago, upas* [tree]. Java : *bantam* [from place-name] : so *gamboge* from Cambodia.

(v) China : *china; tea*, with *bohea* (from place-name), *congou, hyson, oolong, pekee, souchong*—perhaps also *silk* (through L. and Gk.) and *serge* (F.-L.-Gk.). Japan : *japan* (vb. and noun). Tibet : *tama* [high priest].

(vi) Australian : *kangaroo, boomerang*. Polynesian : *taboo, tattoo*.

(vii) Africa—(a) Egypt : *gypsy* (shortened from Egyptian), *ibis, oasis, paper*, and *papyrus* [§ 24 (i.)]. (b) Barbary : *barb*. Morocco : *morocco*. Canary Isles : *canary*. Gold Coast, etc. : *chimpanzee, gorilla, guinea*.

(viii) America—(a) N. Am. Indian : *hominny, mocassin, pemican, skunk, squaw, tomahawk, wigwam*. (b) Mexican (through Sp.) : *cocoa, chocolate, tomato*. (c) W. Indian : *cannibal* (from Caribbean), *canoe, hurricane, mahogany, maize, potato, tobacco*. (d) S. Am. languages (mainly through Sp., Peruvian, and Brazilian) : *ipecacuanha, guano, pampas, tapioca, quinine; alpaca, jaguar, llama* [sheep], *puma, tapir*.

CHAPTER IV.

THE ALPHABET AND THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH.

§ 28. A Letter is the symbol employed in writing to represent a speech sound or combination of speech sounds. The letters used in English are those of the Latin alphabet together with the symbol *w*.

(a) The Britons used the Latin alphabet learned during the Roman occupation of Britain, and the English learned it from them. Hitherto they had employed the old Germanic *runes* (O.E. *rūn* = "mystery," "secret"), which are found in a few inscriptions in this country. For two English sounds not to be accurately represented by the Latin letters, they continued to use runic characters; these were *p* [wen = w] and *þ* [thorn = th, dh]; a new symbol *ð* (equivalent to *þ*) was formed from the Latin *d*: these gave way to *w*, *th*, after the Conquest and disappeared in M.E. The sign *y** or *ye* for "the" sometimes seen in pseudo-archaic style is a blunder for the old *þe*—*i.e.* "the"; of course it was pronounced *the* not *ye*—similarly *þ** was written for "that."

(b) The symbol *j* is simply a variant of *i*, which arose from the fashion of writing that letter with a tail (*i*, *ij*) in certain combinations; it was not employed as a character representing a sound altogether distinct from *i* till the middle of the seventeenth century.

(c) The symbol *v* is a variant of *u*; both began to be used as consonant as well as vowel signs in the M.E. period, generally representing O.E. *f* (= *v*) as well as O.E. *u* in English words, the two forms *u* and *v* being merely two ways of writing the same letter (just as some write *ſ* and others *r* nowadays). Towards the beginning of the modern period of English *u* began to be restricted to the vowel sign, *v* to the consonant.

(d) The symbol *w* (= in form *vv*, *uu*—*i.e.* "double u") is merely the M.E. substitute (due to the Anglo-French scribes) for the old Runic character: the sound has remained unchanged.

(e) The symbol *q* in the combination *qu* was introduced in French words in the M.E. period, and gradually supplanted the equivalent O.E. combination *cw*: e.g. *queen* = O.E. *cwēn*; under the same influence *c*, which had only a *k* sound in O.E. (which used *k* very sparingly), was given the French *s* sound before *e*, *i*, *y*.

(f) The letter *ȝ* (= *y*-sound initially, guttural *h*-sound in other positions, except where it sometimes stands—by confusion of form—for *z*) was also employed in M.E.; the symbol is a variant of *g*.

(g) The Anglo-Saxons used each letter of the Latin alphabet to denote the English sound nearest to that which the letter represented in Latin as pronounced by the Celts. This (which did not differ widely from the Italian pronunciation of Latin) gives "continental" values as the original sounds denoted by the English vowels *ā*, *ē*, *i*, *ō*, *ū*, which were sounded nearly as those of *father*, *fate*, *machine*, *note*, *rule* respectively, with corresponding short sounds.

(h) The Latin alphabet had taken the letters *w*, *y*, *z*, from the Greek, using the two latter only in transliterating Greek words, for which purpose *y* did duty for Greek *υ*.

The word *alphabet*, the name given to the whole of the letters used in any one language, is from the Greek, *ἀλφα, βῆτα* (the first two letters), themselves of Semitic origin.

§ 29. Speech-sounds are divided into

CONSONANTS, sounds formed by stopping or squeezing the breath in some part of the mouth or throat.

VOWELS, sounds formed without such stoppage of the breath. Hence, roughly speaking, a vowel (e.g. *o*, *i*) can be sounded alone, a consonant (e.g. *b*, *d*) cannot.

(a) **Organs of Speech.**—Speech-sounds are produced by the expulsion of breath from the lungs and the treatment by the organs of speech of the breath thus expelled. The air is driven through the windpipe to the *larynx* situated at its upper extremity ("Adam's apple," the projection which moves up and down when one swallows, marks its position); it is in the larynx that "voice" is formed. Across it stretch two elastic ligaments called the vocal chords, between which is an opening called the *glottis*, which can be narrowed or closed at will. The vocal chords are set vibrating by the breath passing into the larynx, and these vibrations produce voice.

[To realise the exact position of the glottis, attempt to sound the letter *h* without a following vowel; the spot where you feel the breath squeezed is the glottis. In forming other consonants (in English) the breath is stopped or squeezed after it has passed the larynx.]

Speech-sounds being formed in the larynx by the vibrations of the vocal chords under the action of breath, are modified and differentiated from one another by the action of lips, tongue, teeth, palate. The palate consists of a hard and a soft part, as can easily be felt by pressing the roof of the mouth with the tip of the tongue from the teeth backwards; the back part of the soft palate is the "uvula," which can be pressed backward and forward; in ordinary breathing it lies forward, and so allows the breath to pass through the nose, and this is its position in forming the sounds called nasal (*n*, *m*, *ng*, which we cannot pronounce if we have such a cold in the nose as to prevent the passage of the breath through it); it is pressed back, thus closing the nose passage, in the production of all other sounds.

§ 30. Consonantal sounds are divided into

STOPS (or Checks, Mutes, Shut, Explosives), in forming which the breath is entirely stopped for a time, being released again with an explosion. These are the sounds generally represented by *p*, *b*; *t*, *d*; *k*, *g* (as in *go*).

CONTINUANTS (or Spirants, Open), in forming which the breath is only squeezed, so that the sound can be prolonged by merely continuing the breath. These are the sounds generally represented by *f*, *v*; *th* (in thin), *th* (in then: phonetically *dh*); *s*, *z*; *sh*, *s* or *z* in pleasure, azure [= *zh*]; *y* (young); *h*, *wh*, as in white; and *w* (we).

LIQUIDS ("flowing" letters), which form a group between Stops and Continuant, partially obstructing the breath, but not closing it entirely (stops), or leaving it entirely free though contracted passage (continuant); these are *m*, *n*, *ng* (singing), *l*, *r* (roll).

§ 31. *c, j, q, x*.—Four consonantal *symbols* are not mentioned in the last paragraph because they do not represent simple consonantal sounds not otherwise represented.

c, when it stands before *e, i, y*, is equivalent to the sound usually represented by *s*; cp. e.g. *city* and *set*, *Cyrus* and *siren*, *cell* and *sell*; but when *c* stands before *a, o, u* it represents the sound otherwise represented by *k*: e.g. *cat*, *kill*. The combination *ch* (as in *church*) is equivalent to *t + sh* (stop + continuant), *ch* as in *Christ* = *k*.

j is the soft sound (§ 32) corresponding to *ch* as in *church*, and is equivalent to *d + zh* (the sound heard in *pleasure*)—this sound is represented sometimes by *g* (before *e, i*), as in *gentle, gin*, sometimes by *-dg* when medial and *-dge* when final, e.g. *judging, judge*.

q is only used in English before *u*, and is then equivalent to *k*: i.e. *qu* = *kw*.

x = *k + s* (as in *box*) or *g + z* (as in *examine*).

§ 32. Consonantal sounds are further classified as soft (voiced) and hard (voiceless); the following can be arranged in pairs:—

<i>Hard.</i> <i>Soft.</i>			<i>Hard.</i>	<i>Soft.</i>
Stops (Mutes)	{ <i>t</i> <i>d</i>	Continuants (Spirants)	{ <i>th</i> (thin)	<i>dh</i> (then)
	{ <i>k</i> <i>g</i> (go)		{ <i>s</i>	<i>z</i>
	{ <i>p</i> <i>b</i>		{ <i>sh</i>	<i>zh</i> (pleasure)
			{ <i>f</i>	<i>v</i>
			{ <i>hw</i>	<i>w</i>

Except *h*, all the other consonants (viz. the liquids and consonantal *y*) are generally voiced (soft) in English.

(a) For Hard, Voiceless, the terms Sharp, Surd, Tenuis, Breathed, are sometimes used; and similarly for Soft, Voiced, the corresponding terms Flat, Sonant, Medium are employed. We use hard and soft throughout this book as the most easily comprehended.

* (b) "The consonants *p, t, k*, etc., are called hard, whilst *b, d, g*, etc., are called soft, because in *p, t, k* there is a more forcible explosion

of the breath. But this is not the most important point of difference between these two classes of consonants. The essential difference can be more easily appreciated if we study some of the open consonants or continuants. Take, for instance, s or z and prolong them. The sound of s, or hissing, is evidently formed by the *breath in the mouth*; but in the prolonged z, or buzzing, a faint sound of *voice*, formed in the larynx, is distinctly heard at the same time. And the same thing may be very well observed in prolonging f or v. . . . The essential difference between the hard or soft consonants is, therefore, that the hard consonants are simply formed by the breath [hence called 'breathed' or 'voiceless'], whilst in the soft consonants there is a faint sound of voice [hence called 'voiced']. They are midway between the consonants and the vowels."—Miss Soames' *Introduction to the Study of Phonetics*.

* (c) "The main distinction between vowels and consonants is that while in vowels the mouth configuration merely modifies the voiced breath—which is, therefore, an essential element of them—in consonants the narrowing or stopping of the mouth passage is the foundation of the sound, and the state of the glottis is something secondary. Consonants can, therefore, be breathed as well as voiced, the mouth configuration alone being enough to produce a distinction without the help of 'voice.'"—Sweet's *Primer of Phonetics*.

§ 33. Consonantal sounds are further classified according to the organs of speech which give them their distinctive character. Thus, in producing p, b, the breath is stopped by closing the lips, whence these are called lip-stops or labials (L. *labium*, "lip"); in t, d the breath is stopped at the root of the upper teeth, whence these are called dentals (L. *dent*-, "tooth"); th, dh are produced with the tongue between the teeth, whence they are dental letters distinguished from other dentals by being called interdental; k, g are throat stops or gutturals (L. *guttur*, "throat"). The upper teeth and lower lip come in contact to produce f, v, whence these letters are labio-dental; h is formed by squeezing the breath in the glottis (§ 29a); in sh, zh (pleasure), y, the blade or broad part of the tongue is pressed against the palate. The whole classification of the consonantal sounds appears in the following table:—

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<i>Hard. Soft.</i>			<i>Hard. Soft.</i>
Stops (Mutes)	t	d	th (thin) dh (then)
	k	g (go)	s z
	p	b	sh zh (pleasure)
			f v
			hw w
		Continuants (Spirants)	

Except *h*, all the other consonants (viz. the liquids and consonantal *y*) are generally voiced (soft) in English.

(a) For Hard, Voiceless, the terms Sharp, Surd, Tenuis, Breathed, are sometimes used; and similarly for Soft, Voiced, the corresponding terms Flat, Sonant, Medium are employed. We use hard and soft throughout this book as the most easily comprehended.

* (b) "The consonants *p, t, k*, etc., are called hard, whilst *b, d, g*, etc., are called soft, because in *p, t, k* there is a more forcible explosion

of the breath. But this is not the most important point of difference between these two classes of consonants. The essential difference can be more easily appreciated if we study some of the open consonants or continuants. Take, for instance, s or z and prolong them. The sound of s, or hissing, is evidently formed by the *breath in the mouth*; but in the prolonged z, or buzzing, a faint sound of *voice*, formed in the larynx, is distinctly heard at the same time. And the same thing may be very well observed in prolonging f or v. . . . The essential difference between the hard or soft consonants is, therefore, that the hard consonants are simply formed by the breath [hence called 'breathed' or 'voiceless'], whilst in the soft consonants there is a faint sound of voice [hence called 'voiced']. They are midway between the consonants and the vowels."—Miss Soames' *Introduction to the Study of Phonetics*.

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§ 34.

	Labial.	Labio-Dental.	Inter-Dental.	Dental.	Palatal.	Guttural.	Glottal.
STOPS {	hard . . .	p		t		k	
	soft. . .	b		d		g	
LIQUIDS {	nasal . . .	m		n		ng	
	lingual. . .			l	r		
CONTINUANTS {	hard . . .	hw		s	sh, y		h
	soft. . .	w	th dh	z	zh		

The sounds s, z, sh, zh, and the compounds ch, j, are known as sibilant, *i.e.* "hissing" (pres. part. of *L. sibilare*, "to hiss").

r is sometimes called a trill.

w, y (as in *wre, ye*) are sometimes called semi-vowels or semi-consonants.

§ 35. We see from the preceding table that we have twenty-three consonant sounds, and that we have only twenty-one symbols, of which four (j, c, q, x, § 31) do not represent sounds which could not be expressed by the others. The disproportion between our vowel-symbols and vowel-sounds is, however, far greater; for with the six symbols a, e, i, o, u, and y, we have to represent many times that number of vowels.

§ 36. The following words give twelve simple vowel sounds commonly heard:—

<i>Long.</i>	<i>Short.</i>
father	fat
fate	fetch
feet	fit
fought	fop
foam	fun
fool	foot

(a) Mr. Pitman's memorial sentences for these sounds will be familiar to students of his Phonography. They are (long) "Half-pay she thought so poor," and (short) "That pen is not one foot."

§ 37. A very common vowel sound is that heard in the second syllable of *better*, *villa*, *cupboard*, or the first syllable of *grammarian*, *attend*, *verandah*. This is sometimes called the obscure vowel, the neutral vowel, or the natural vowel. It only occurs in unaccented syllables, and may often be heard in such words as *but*, *and*, *or*, *was*, *what*, *a*, when used unemphatically in sentences. The accented vowel nearest it in sound is heard in *but* (accented), *burn*, *one*, etc. A long accented vowel corresponding (or almost corresponding) to it is heard in *heard*, *urn*, *colonel*.

Final *r* is never sounded in southern English as a *consonant* except before a word beginning with a vowel (cp. "Hair grows fast" and "The hair of the head," *fire* and *fiery*), and not always then. Its place is generally taken by the obscure vowel, so that in such words as *hare*, *here*, *roar*, etc., we have really diphthongs, of which this obscure vowel (usually denoted by phoneticians by *ə*—i.e. a turned *e*) is the final element.

§ 38. The following give four of the commonest diphthongal sounds — sounds produced by beginning on one vowel and passing towards and gradually into another:—

fine [ā (as in father) + i (as in fit)].
found [ā (as in father) + ŭ (as in put)].
foist [aw (as in law) + i (as in fit)].
fume [i (as in fit) + oo (as in fool)].

It must be noticed that the word “diphthong” applies solely to the sound, and not to the symbol or symbols, which in English are most misleading.

(a) Thus, we see that single symbols represent diphthongs in *finning*, *finer*; on the other hand simple vowel-sounds are often represented by a combination of letters, as in *sheaf*, *key*, *feet*, *niece*, *deceive* (all having same vowel as *she*, *machine*), in *bread* (cp. *pen*), *boot*, *foot*, etc.

§ 39. In a perfect or ideal alphabet we should have one and only one symbol for each simple sound in the language, and this as we have seen is far from being the case with us. Our twenty-six letters have to represent twenty-three consonant sounds, and at least thirteen simple vowels.

(a) But it must be remembered there are in reality a very much larger number of vowel sounds than it would be practicable to represent by separate symbols (to say nothing of diphthongs); for shades of difference between what appear to be to the untrained ear identical vowel sounds are easily discoverable by the phonetician. The vowel heard in *turn* should perhaps be mentioned as easily distinguished from any of those given above.

§ 40. Our Spelling.—It follows from the nature of the case that our system of spelling could not be altogether *phonetic* (i.e. having sounds and symbols consistently corresponding) unless we were to add considerably to the number of our letters. It is not, however, paucity of symbols that mainly gives rise to the extraordinary anomalies of our spelling, but the inconsistent way in

which we employ such symbols as we have. As a common example of the way in which a couple of different sounds are represented by the same symbol, where we have symbols enough to discriminate the sounds if we chose to use them, we may instance the inflexional *s* which is *pronounced* hard after a hard letter, but soft after a soft one (= *z*, § 32). Thus *caps* (both hard), *cabs* (both soft); similarly the inflexional *d*, -ed, e.g. *hoped* (= *p* + *t*, both hard), *stabbed* (= *b* + *d*, both soft). On the other hand, the instances given in §§ 31, 38*a*, will illustrate our ways of using a variety of symbols to represent a given sound.

(*a*) An explanation of many of the anomalies of our orthography is afforded by the fact that, while our spelling has changed little in essentials during the last three centuries, our pronunciation has vastly altered, so that the orthography is that of a now thoroughly archaic English pronunciation which it never very adequately represented. Spelling could be fixed and stereotyped, and this began to be done by the Elizabethan printers; but the language itself altered in the course of nature.

(*b*) To give one or two more examples of the curiosities of our orthography—the student will find others on examining any sentence or group of words—we take (from Miss Soames' *Phonetics*) the following twenty-one words which show the vowel heard in *fate* written in twenty-one different ways:—*fate*, *lady*, *fail*, *may*, *played*, *dahlia*, *champagne*, *campaign*, *straight*, *trait*, *halfpenny*, *gaol*, *gange*, *vein*, *they*, *break*, *eh*, *obeyed*, *reign*, *weigh*, *weighed*.

On the other hand the symbol *a* represents a different sound in each of the following: *father*, *fate*, *fall*, *fat*, *wan*, *organ*, as well as (in combination with other letters) in *pea*, *foam*, *earth*, *care*, *said*, *guinea*.

Among consonantal symbols we might notice, besides some already indicated, such instances as—

ch in *charm* (= *tsh*), *chasm* (= *k*), *chaise* (= *sh*), and *schism* (where it is silent).

g in *go* (soft guttural stop), *gentle* (= *j* = *d* + *zh*, § 31), in *sing* (-*ng*, nasal), in *finger* (where the -*ng* = nasal *ng* + *g* as in *go*), and in the combination -*ough* as in *though*, *bough*, *thought* [in each of which it helps to produce a different vowel or diphthong, but has no trace of consonantal sound] and in *cough* [cp. *off*], *hiccough* [cp. *cup*], *rough* [cp. *ruff*], *hough* [cp. *hock*].

§ 41. "Etymological" Spellings.—Many mis-spellings arise from false notions of etymology, sometimes due to mere confusion or analogy with other forms, sometimes to a conscious but misdirected attempt to force a word to show its origin by its form. Thus *could* is spelt with an *l* because its form has been assimilated to those of *should* and *would*; but in the latter the *l* though now unphonetic is a survival from the time when it was sounded; in *could* no *l* sound was ever heard (for *could* belongs to *can*, but *would*, *should* to *will*, *shall*: see § 177). On the other hand *debt*, *doubt* coming from French *dette*, *doute* were properly spelt in Mid. Eng. without the *b* which they now have; but this was thrust in in the modern period (sixteenth century) in order that the connection between them and the Latin originals of the French forms (*debit-um*, *dubit-are*) might be evident.

(a) Instances of pedantic spellings such as *doubt*, *debt* are common: a few more may be considered—

phantom is the M.E. *fantom* < O.F. *fantasme* (now *fantôme*) ultimately from Gk. *φάντασμα*: it is of course from this last that the *ph* has been taken for the *f* which should commence the English word; but we have kept the *f* in other words of the same origin, viz. *fantasy* and its shortened form *fancy*, *fantastic*. (Words of "learned" formation coined from the same source properly keep the *ph*—e.g. *phenomenon*, *dia-phan-ous*, *sycophant* [Gk. *συκο* = "fig"], etc.: the stem is that of Gk. *φαίνω*, "shew," "make to appear," *φάειν*, "shine").

posthumous (also spelt *postumous*) owes its *h* to a fanciful etymology connecting it with *post*, "after" + *humus*, "ground": it is really the Latin superlative formed from *post*. The *h* is found in French.

receipt has the *p* of the stem (L. *receptum*—*re-cipere*—*capere*), which should have disappeared (F. *recette*) as it has in *con-ceive*, *de-ceive*, etc. The word *recipe* (three syllables) is simply the Latin imperative (= "Take thou") used as a noun owing to its standing regularly first in formulas for concoctions, etc.

scient is from the F. *sent-ir*, L. *sent-ire*, "feel," and was formerly written *sent*. The intrusive *c* is perhaps due to analogy with *science* (L. *scientia*, *scire*, "know") with which of course it is unconnected: several other words were thus misspelled with *sc* for *s* in the seventeenth century, one of which remains, viz. *scythe*. [This stands for

older *sithe* (O.E. *siðe*, *sigðe*: cp. G. *Sense*): the same root meaning "cut" appears in Lat. *sec-are*, whence *sec-ant*, *insect*, *bisect*, *siock-le*, *scion*, etc. *Scion* appears in M.E. as *sion*, from O.F. *sier*, "to cut" (but Mod. Fr. writes *scier*, *scion*), from L. *secare*.]

sovereign owes the spelling of its last syllable to a supposed connection with "reign," L. *regnum*; it should rather be *soveran* (as Milton spells it) being from F. *souverain* (older *soverain*), from Low Latin *superanus*, adj. formed from *super*, "above." The Italian *soprano* adopted into English is a doublet of it, coming from the same adjective.

victuals owes its *c* to the L. *victualia* (*vict-um* from *vivere*, "live"), from which it is derived through the O.F. *vitailles* (Mod. F. vb. *avitailler*): the modern spelling disguises the history, but the modern pronunciation (*vitt'ls*) is correct.

(b) Other misspellings of words due to the influence of similar forms (see *could* above) have as a rule followed from a "popular" etymology of a word which has altered its pronunciation (see "cray-fish," "livelihood," etc., in §§ 122, 124*c*).

eyry is so spelt by confusion apparently with M.E. *ey*, "egg" (cf. Ger. *Ei*): the spelling *aery* [nothing to do with *aerial* and *air* < Gk. *ἀήρ*] shows a little more clearly its derivation from the Low L. *area*, "nest."

frontispiece owes the spelling of its final syllable and the pronunciation of it to confusion with the word *piece*; it should rather be *frontispice* from L. *fronti-spicium*, where the second element is from Lat. *spec-ere*, "see" [stem of our *spec-ies*, *a-spec-t*, *spec-ial*, etc.].

island (in which the *s* was never pronounced) has been influenced in spelling by a natural tendency to connect it with the word *isle*; but while *isle* is O.F. *isle* (now *île*), L. *insula*, *island* is A.S. *ig-land* (where *ig* means "island").

ADDENDUM.—The classification of sounds given above is all that the ordinary learner will require: a scientific treatment of phonetics is beyond the scope of this book. It may, however, be here noted that, strictly speaking, the sound heard in *fern*, *turn* (§ 39*a*), should be added to the long simple vowel sounds (§ 36), and the obscure vowel (§ 37) to the short; while the sounds heard in *fate* and *foam* (§ 36) should be transferred to the diphthongs (§ 38):

fate [e (as in met) + i (as in fit)].

foam [ō (as in poke) + u (as in put)].

CHAPTER V.

THE CONSONANTAL SOUND SHIFTINGS ("GRIMM'S LAW," ETC.).

§ 42. *Tres and Three.*—Some of the most striking characteristics which distinguish the Teutonic from the other Indo-European languages appear in the way in which the former treated certain of the consonants. For example, the Indo-European p, t, g, which were preserved in the classical languages in *pater, tres, genus*, and in *πατήρ* (*patēr*), *τρεῖς* (*treis*), *γένος* (*genos*) appear in modern English as *f, th, k* in *father, three, kin*.

The student must clearly grasp the fact that none of these words is "derived" from the other; *pater, πατήρ, father*, all spring from a common Indo-European source: they are "cognate"—i.e. related by birth to one another, as children of the *same* parent, not as child and parent.

§ 43. The consonants we are concerned with in this chapter are the Indo-European stops or mutes and their resultants in English and some other tongues. These I.-E. stops may be conveniently classified as follows (cp. § 32):—

	Soft.	Hard.	Aspirates.
Dental	d	t	th and dh
Guttural	g [as in go]	k	kh and gh
Labial	b	p	ph and bh

(a) The sounds given above as "aspirates" are not the *spirants* (see § 30) heard in *thick, this, enough, philosopher*, etc., in English, but combinations of *t, d, p*, etc., with *h*: if we put a vowel after them we can sound them approximately without much difficulty, pronouncing them almost as in *pot-house, mad-house, block-head, log-hut, loop-hole, club-house*, but without such a distinct interval before

the aspirate, and of course without dropping the aspirate as is usually done in *Clapham, Eltham*, etc. [The fact that we so drop it illustrates the reason why aspirated consonants have disappeared from English and other languages (Latin as well as the Teutonic ones): they were found *difficult to pronounce*.]

(b) Of the sounds given above the aspirated hard mutes, viz., th, kh, ph, were of rare occurrence in Indo-European, and their resultants in English need not further be discussed here.

* (c) We ought also to make a distinction between two originally distinct forms of the gutturals: the one the ordinary (palatal), as in *go, kill*; the other velar somewhat, as in *Green, queen*: but in an elementary work it is not practicable or necessary to deal with the latter where their treatment differs from that of the palatals.

§ 44. The first sound-shifting.—Now at some time after the separation of Teutonic from the parent stock, and before it split up into separate languages [§ 3], each of these letters was pushed forward *one step in its own class*; for example, an original soft dental (d) became a hard dental (t), an original hard dental t passed into th which was, however, not an aspirate (§ 43a) in primitive Teutonic, but a hard spirant (th in *thick*); similarly an aspirated dental passed into d; and similar changes took place in each of the other classes. This process is known as the first sound-shifting; when we have stated the second (which does not concern English) we shall have the whole of what is known as Grimm's Law.

(a) Jacob Grimm was the first to tabulate the various shiftings so as to comprehend them under a set of formulas.

§ 45. The processes of the whole of the first sound-shifting may be easily remembered by the word L. *tres* (or Gk. *τρεῖς*) and the English *three*: here the original t (kept in Latin and Greek) shifts into English th. Write down these two letters in due order, putting of course the original first (thus t > th: use the symbol > for "becomes" or "become"), add to this the remaining dental (d) and we have the row t > th > d, which reminds us—

- (i) that original t should become primitive Teutonic th;
- (ii) that original th should become primitive Teutonic d;
- (iii) that original d should become primitive Teutonic t:

this latter is best shown by writing after the three letters in order the one which begins the series, thus $t > th > d > t$.

With similar treatment of the gutturals and labials, and using the same symbols th , kh , ph for original *aspirates* and Teutonic *spirants*, *hard* and *soft*, we get the whole table of changes as far as English is concerned:—

	Hard.	Spirant or Aspirate.	Soft.	Hard.
Dentals	t	$> th$	$> d$	$> t$
Gutturals	k	$> kh$	$> g$	$> k$
Labials	p	$> ph$	$> b$	$> p$

It makes no difference with what letter you begin, as long as the cyclic order is preserved: it is well to preserve the symmetry by beginning each line with the same kind of mute (all hard in the table). Read it: "Indo-European t becomes in English th , Indo-European th becomes in English d ," and so on.

The use of the table is at once apparent: if we look at g , for example, we see $g > k$ —i.e. an original Indo-European g (as kept in Latin *genus*) becomes in primitive Teutonic a k (as kept in English *kin*); similarly $kh > g$ —i.e. English g represents Indo-European kh (in Gk. as χ), and so forth.

§ 46. Cornu and Horn.—Examples of the whole of the changes are not always to be found precisely as the "Law" or formula indicates, owing to a variety of circumstances further discussed below. One whole class of sounds in English in which the "Law" at first sight seems to break down may be mentioned here. This is the case of words which should begin with kh according to the table. There are none such in English (the sibilant ch has nothing to do with this, nor of course ch pron. k , in words such as Christian *derived* from Greek); but on examination of Classical and English cognates we see at once what has happened—one instance will suffice: Latin *corn-u*, is represented in English by *horn*, not *khorn*, i.e. the aspirated hard guttural mute, passing into a spirant (something like the German guttural ch) in primitive Teutonic, has been reduced to the simple aspirate h (cp. § 43a).

§ 47. Selected examples of these changes in their most regular form are given in connection with the exposition of the further shifting in § 52.

(a) In the following paragraphs (§ 47, *b, c, d*) we examine the action of the shifting process, as far as it concerns English, in some detail. For original Indo-European Latin examples are taken where they retain the original sound sufficiently clearly; in other cases (notably for the aspirated mutes) Greek forms are given. Examples from less-known tongues which often better preserve the original sound (*e.g.* Sanskrit) are not adduced. Modern English forms are given in preference to older ones (or to other Teutonic forms) where they show the sound discussed with sufficient clearness. In all the words cited, our only business at present is with the particular sounds considered as illustrative of the shiftings, and the question of their other relations to one another is not entered into; but the student is not to suppose that the vowels in such forms are necessarily equivalent, still less that they "don't count." If, for instance, we write *L. granum*, *Eng. corn*, we merely state that from the same form or root originally containing *g* come the Latin *g* in *granum*, and the English *k* heard in *corn*. For our purpose we may disregard here entirely the Latin suffix, and the difference in the form and position of the vowels. But we should have no right to do so, if comparative philology had not shown us that the history and development of these words justify us in referring them back to a common pre-historic original.

(b) **Dentals—**

(i) Original *t* (preserved in Gk. and *L.*) becomes in English *dh*, *th* (both written *th* and always spirant). Gk. *τρεις*, *L. tres*, *Eng. three*; Gk. *τὸ*, *L. tu*, *Eng. thou*; Gk. *τό*, *L. is-te*, *Eng. that*; Gk. *φάτρης*, *L. frater*, *Eng. brother*.

(ii) Original aspirated dental *dh* (preserved as *θ* in Greek, *f* initially and *d* medially in Latin) becomes *d* in English. Gk. *θυ-* (root of *τίθημι*, *θησκω*), *Eng. do*; Gk. *θυγάτηρ*, *Eng. daughter*; Gk. *θύρα*, *L. fores*, *Eng. door*.

(iii) Original *d* (preserved in Gk. and *L.*) becomes *t* in English. Gk. *δύο*, *L. duo*, *Eng. two*; Gk. *δέκα*, *L. decem*, *Eng. ten*; Gk. *καρδία*, *L. cord-is* (genitive shows the stem), *Eng. heart*; Gk. *ὀδόντος*, *L. dent-em*, *Eng. tooth*; *L. videre*, *Eng. wot*; *L. edere*, *Eng. eat*.

(c) Gutturals—

(i) Original k (preserved in Gk. and L.) becomes h (representing primitive Teut. spirant kh, pron. much as ch in loch, Ger. or Scot., § 46) initially. Gk. κύων, L. canis, Eng. hound; Gk. καρδία, L. cor, Eng. heart; Gk. ἑκατόν, L. centum, Eng. hundred, cp. § 147, b; L. caput, Eng. head (O.E. heafod); L. can-ere ("sing"), Eng. hen (iem. of O.E. hana, "cock"); Gk. κέρας, L. cornu, Eng. horn; L. eap-ere, Eng. heave; L. quod, Eng. what (= hwat). Medially and finally it was represented in O.E. by h (pron. like Ger. ch, guttural spirant) which generally disappears entirely from Mod. English, though the spelling sometimes preserves traces of it. Gk. δέκα, L. decem, O.E. tēon (for tilan), now ten; L. dūco, O.E. teoĥan (whence tow, tie); L. pecus, O.E. feoĥ, now fee. In some words there is now no trace of the original guttural, the O.E. h having disappeared from English before l, r (§ 67). Gr. κλυτός, L. (in)clutus, "renowned," O.E. mlūd, now loud; Gk. κρέας (flesh), L. crudus, O.E. hrēw, now raw.

(ii) Original aspirated guttural gh (preserved as χ in Greek, in Latin h initially, g, etc., otherwise; cp. the Teutonic treatment of Teutonic kh above, § 46) becomes g in English. Gk. χόλος, Eng. gall; Gk. χήν, L. kanser, Eng. goose (O.E. gūs, for gons for gans; cp. Ger. Gans); Gk. χόρτος, L. hortus, Eng. garden; L. homo, Eng. groom (with intrusive r, O.E. guma); L. hostis, Eng. guest. Medially and finally the English guttural has frequently disappeared, though sometimes leaving traces in the spelling. Gk. τεῖχος (wall), Eng. dough (O.E. dāh, stem dāg-: cp. Ger. Teig); Gk. πῆχυς, Eng. (el)bow, bough (O.E. bōh, stem bōg-: cp. Ger. Bogen); Gk. λέχος, L. leco-tus (for leg-tum), "bed," Eng. lie (O.E. lieg-an: cp. Ger. liegen).

(iii) Original g [pron. as in go] (preserved in Gk., L.) becomes k in English, Gk. γένος, L. gen-us, Eng. kin; Gk. ἀγρός, L. ager, Eng. acre; Gk. ἔργον, Eng. work; L. granum, Eng. corn; L. gel-u (frost), Eng. col-d; L. aug-ere, Eng. eke; Gk. ζυγόν, L. jugum, Eng. yoke. We do not pronounce a k before an n in Mod. English, though the spelling often represents the older pronunciation:—Gk. γόνυ, L. genu, Eng. knee; Gk. γι-γνώσκειν, L. gnoscerē (noscere), Eng. know. Final guttural has frequently disappeared in English, so that the correspondence is often not apparent from the modern language. Gk. ἐγώ, L. ego, Eng. I, for O.E. ic [i.e. iā].

(d) Labials—

(i) Original p preserved in L. and Gk. becomes f (the labio-dental spirant now representing the Teutonic ph) in Mod. English. Gk.

πατήρ, L. *pater*, Eng. *father*; Gk. *ποῦς* (*ποδ-*), L. *pes* (*ped-*), Eng. *foot*; L. *pecus*, Eng. *fee*; L. *piscis*, Eng. *fish*; Gk. *κλέπτειν*, L. *clepere*, "steal," Eng. *lift* (only in word *shop-lifter* in Mod. Eng.; Goth. verb *hlifan*); Lat. *paucus*, Eng. *few* (with the guttural spirant corresponding to the Latin *c[k]* dropped in earliest English); Gk. *πέλλα*, L. *pellis*, Eng. *fell* (a skin). In seven (O.E. *seofon*) the consonant stands for *pt*, L. *septem*, Gk. *ἑπτα*.

(ii) Original aspirated labial *bh* (preserved as *φ* in Greek; in L. as *f*) becomes in English *b*. Gk. *φράτηρ*, L. *frater*, Eng. *brother*; Gk. *φῆρω*, L. *fero*, Eng. *bear*; Gk. *φεύγω*, L. *fugio*, Eng. *bow* (verb). The *b* thus produced finally has sometimes disappeared, but remained in the spelling; Gk. *γύμφορ*, Eng. *comb*.

(iii) Original *b* preserved in Gk. and Lat., and corresponding to an English *p*, is rarely found. Of its appearance thus initially there are no examples—possibly there are no native English words beginning with *p*; medially and finally the letter appears often enough in English words, but in such cases L. and Gk. cognates with *b* are not easily found. These examples are given:—L. *lub-ricus* (for *slub-ricus*), "slippery," Eng. *slip*; L. *trib-us*, Eng. *thorp*; Eng. *sleep* is perhaps connected with L. *lab-are*. Eng. *kemp* (O.E. *krænep*) is not cognate with Gk. *κάμωσις*, though it shows the shifting in both consonants, but is derived from it or rather from its Latin form (the word is an interesting example of the fact that sound shifting process was applied to some words borrowed at an extremely early date § 12).

§ 48. The Second Sound-Shifting. We now come to the second sound-shifting process, which applies only to High German (Modern German, § 2*a*). This is distinguished from the rest of the Teutonic languages by having pushed the shifting process one step further; this step, unlike the older shifting, was taken in historic times (the Old High German period), and was by no means carried out so regularly and universally. The dentals show its operation most clearly; thus an Indo-European *t* (preserved in Latin *tu*) was converted into *th* in primitive Teutonic (represented by Eng. *thou*) according to § 45; this *th* became in High German *d* (as in Ger. *du*).

Hence supposing the whole process to have been regularly carried out we might use the table already given in § 45, expecting to find that any sound in all Teutonic languages,

except German, would be represented in German by the one adjacent to it on the right. Thus, reading the line $k > kh > g > k$ as "Indo-Eur. g becomes in primitive Teut. k —primitive Teut. k becomes in (High) German kh ," we should expect a given High German kh to correspond with an English k and a Classic g . Similarly German p should correspond with an English b , and a Classic ph [$p > ph > b > p$]. The complete table is given below in § 51; that already drawn out (§ 45), of which it is only an extension, may be used.

§ 49. The Actual Correspondences between the English and (High) German Mutes are not, however, exactly such as the table would indicate, though the dentals show all these processes with considerable regularity. The gutturals show the processes least perfectly, frequently appearing in German as in English. One class of examples will serve to illustrate this: the Indo-European k became in Primitive Germanic the spirant kh , and this was always reduced, as we saw (§ 46), when initial to h : hence it was not affected by the second or High German sound-shifting and remains as h , e.g. Lat. *cornu*, Eng. *horn*, Ger. *Horn*. Similarly Ind.-Eur. p produced the general Teutonic ph , which being a spirant (= f) was no further shifted. Thus Lat. *ped-em*, Eng. *foot*, Ger. *Fuss*.

Some further details as to the action of the High German sound shifting are given here:—

(a) Dentals—

(i) General Teutonic t (from I.-E. d) becomes not th (which is a sound never heard in High German), but ts (written z) at the beginning of a word, s , ss (sharp) in other positions—Two: *Zwei*. Ten: *Zehn*. Tooth: *Zahn*. To: *Zu*, Tongue: *Zunge*. Toe: *Zehe*. Twig: *Zweig*. Tide: *Zeit*. Eat: *essen*. Wot: *weiss*. What: *was*. That: *das*, *dass*. Foot: *Fuss*. Water: *Wasser*. Sometimes z (written tz) medially when commencing a syllable—Sit: *sitzen*. Set: *setzen*.

(ii) General Teutonic th (I.-E. t) becomes regularly d . Three: *drei*. Thou: *du*. Brother: *Bruder*. Though: *doch*. That: *das*. This: *dies*. Through: *durch*. Both: *beide*. Heath: *Heide*. Bath: *Bad*.

(iii) General Teutonic d (from I.-E. dh) becomes regularly t . Daughter: *Tochter*. Do: *tun* [the spelling *thun* is deceptive: every

*t*h in native German words is etymologically *t* and is so pronounced].
Door: *Türe*, *For*: *Drive*: *treiben*. *Day*: *Tag*. *Head* (O.E. *heafod*):
Haupt. *Good*: *gut*. -hood: -heit. Inflections of weak verbs, e.g.
laid: *legte*, *gelegt*.

(b) Gutturals—

(i) General Teutonic *k* (from I.-E. *g*) usually shifted to *kh* (ch) medially and finally in High German. *Speak*: *sprechen*. I (O.E. *ic*): *ich*. *Break*: *brechen*. *Make*: *machen*. *Stroke*: *Streich*. Initially it remains unshifted. *Cow*: *Kuh*. *Can*: *kann*. *Come*: *kommen*.

(ii) General Teutonic *h* (for *kh*, § 47c (i), from I.-E. *k*) remains as *h* in High German. *Heart*: *Herz*. *Hundred*: *hundert*. *Head*: *Haupt*. *Hen*: *Henne*. *Horn*: *Horn*. *Have*: *haben*. *Help*: *helfen*. Medially and finally it disappears (though often still written, generally marking length of vowel or avoiding hiatus) as in English *fee* (O.E. *feoh*): *Vieh*. *Ten* (cp. *decem*, § 47c (i)): *zehn*.

(iii) General Teutonic *g* (I.-E. *gh*) remains as *g* in High German. *Goose*: *Gans*. *Garden*: *Garten*. *Guest*: *Gast*. Finally and medially, it is frequently preserved where the guttural has disappeared from spoken English. *Dough*: *Teig*. *Bough*: *Bogen*. *Lie*: *liegen*. *So*: *Tag*. *Rain*: *Regen*. [In some dialects of Germany, however, there is a tendency to pronounce *g* nearly as *k*.]

(c) Labials.

(i) General Teutonic *p* representing I.-E. *b* medially and finally (sometimes, § 47d (iii)) regularly appears in German as *f*. Examples are *slip*: *schleifen*. *Thorp*: *Dorf*. *Sleep*: *schlafen*. *Hemp*: *Hanf*. As a rule Eng. final and medial *p* regularly corresponds to Ger. *f* whatever its origin may have been. Other examples are *help*: *helfen*. The appearance of initial *p* in native English words is doubtful, § 47d (iii); but *p* in early borrowing from Latin (§ 23) appears in High German as *pf*. *Pepper* (L. *piper*): *Pfeffer*. *Port* (L. *port-us*): *Pforte*. *Pound* (L. *pondus*): *Pfund*.

(ii) General Teutonic *ph* (representing I.-E. *p*) remains without further shifting in High German as *f* [often written *v*, pronounced as English *f*]. *Father*: *Vater*. *Foot*: *Fuss*. *Fish*: *Fisch*. *For*: *für*. *Four*: *vier*. *Free*: *frei*. *Full*: *voll*. *Feather*: *Feder*.

(iii) General Teutonic *b* (I.-E. *bh*) is not shifted further in High German. *Brother*: *Bruder*. *Bear*: *bären*. *Bow*: *biegen*. The final and medial Teutonic *b*, which we observe as weakened to *v* and *f* in English, is generally retained in High German. *Dore*: *Taube*. *Calf*: *Kalb*. *Shore*: *schieben*. *Deaf*: *taub*. *Life*: *Leben*. *Lore*: *lieben*.

§ 50. Formal Statement of "Grimm's Law."—Understanding the circumstances under which these shiftings of the mutes took place or failed to do so, the student may now take the following as a concise statement of Grimm's Law, which regards—for the purposes of conciseness and symmetry—all the shiftings as proceeding "regularly":—

"Original I.-E. hard dental (generally preserved in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin) shifted first into general Teutonic spirant dental (preserved in English), and further and long subsequently shifted into a High German soft dental. Similarly, original aspirated dental becomes on the first shifting soft, and on the second hard; original soft dental becomes on the first shifting hard, and on the second spirant. Precisely similar shiftings apply to gutturals and labials."

Or more briefly (using *i* for both aspirate and spirant, *s* for soft, *h* for hard):—

"Each mute shifted one step forward in its own class on passing from original Indo-European into original Teutonic, and shifted one step further on passing into High German, the order of progression being



§ 51. Complete Table to Illustrate Grimm's Law.—The formal exposition and statement of the whole "Law" in its theoretical form may easily be remembered and illustrated by the same method as that of § 45, adding to L. *tres* and Eng. *three* the Modern German *drei*. If the student understands the history of the matter, no "mnemonic" should be needed, nor is there any need to commit to memory the statement or formula of the last paragraph. Proceeding precisely as in § 45, we write from the example $t > th > d$, and complete the cycle on the same principle as before by writing again the first two letters. Thus, $t > th > d > t > th$, which we read "Indo-European *t* becomes primitive Teutonic *th*, which becomes High German *d*," and so forth. Similarly German *t* should correspond with English *d* and with Classic

th. Treating the other mutes in the same way (writing hard guttural under hard dental, and so forth), we get the complete table, which the student should exercise himself in constructing, not from "learning" it or the "law" by heart, but from understanding its formation, starting always with a regular example. Hence

Complete table for the shifting of the mutes as formulated by Grimm, each letter in the original Indo-European (generally in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin) being represented after the first shifting (English and all Teutonic Languages, except High German) by the one next to it on the right, which itself is represented after the second shifting (High German) by the one next to itself on the right; the symbols th, ph, gh standing in the table alike for aspirates and spirants soft or hard.

Dentals: $t > th > d > t > th$.


Gutturals: $k > kh > g > k > kh$.

Labials: $p > ph > b > p > ph$.

It is conciser, though perhaps not so simple for reference, to write each line in a diagram such as this—



Read as before "d becomes t, t becomes th," etc. Still more com-

pendious is the  of § 50, which gives the whole thing;

but the student must remember that any attempt which begins by "learning" the law from a formula (especially the last) will infallibly end in discomfiture.

§ 52. The following are examples showing the working of the "Law," selected with a view to exhibiting the processes, as far as possible, in accordance with the above statement; the letters in brackets indicate the "theoretical" correspondences:—

(i) Dentals.

(t — th — d)	tres — three — drei
(th — d — t)	θύρα (thura) — door — tür
(d — t — th)	duo — two — zwei.

(ii) Labials.

(p — ph — b)	pedem — foot — Fuss
(ph — b — p)	frater — brother — Bruder
(b — p — ph)	(s)lubricus — slip — schleifen.

(iii) Gutturals.

(k — kh — g)	cornu — horn — Horn
(kh — g — k)	χόρος (khortos) — garden — Garten
(g — k — kh)	jugum — yoke — Joch.

*(a). **Verner's Law.**—A whole class of apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law has been explained by Verner. It is found that an original (Ind.-Eur.) *t, p, k* shifted one stage further than explained by Grimm, when immediately preceded by an unaccented vowel: under the same circumstances original *s* passed into *z*, and then into *r*. A clear example of the difference thus caused by accent is seen in the following:—

Gk. *πατήρ*; Old Eng. *fæder*; Ger. *Vater* [unaccented vowel immediately before *t*]; but

Gk. *φράτηρ*; Eng. *brother*; Ger. *Bruder* [accented vowel immediately before the *t*].

CHAPTER VI.

METHOD OF DERIVATION—ROOT AND STEM—PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES—GRADATION AND MUTATION.

§ 53. If we examine the words—

reduction, educate, ductile, ducal.

we see at once that the group contains—

(a) an element which is common to all the words in the group, viz., *-duc-*: and

(b) various elements which we recognise as frequently entering into the structure of other words not necessarily containing the said common element, viz., *con-, re-, e-, and -ion, -ate, -ile, -al*.

The syllable *-duc-* is said to be the root of each of these words.

The syllables *con-, re-, e-*, and other syllables placed before the root, are called prefixes (L. *prae*, "before," and *fixus*, "fixed"): the syllables *-ate, -ile, -al*, and other syllables placed after the root, are called suffixes (L. *sub*, "under," and *fixus*).

(a) Both prefixes and suffixes may be grouped together under the name *affix* (*ad*, "to," and *fixus*).

§ 54. The words just examined [§ 53] are, however, not native English words, but derivatives from Latin, as of course the student will at once perceive: therefore *duc* or *duk* is not an English root, but a Latin one, or, to be more precise, a Latin one in the form in which it sometimes appears in English.

* (a) The general Teutonic cognate of this root would by Grimm's Law have initial *t* and final *kh* (see § 52), and this is represented to us in Modern English in *tow* (O.E. *tog-en*, pp. of *tēon*: cf. G. *ziehen*), *tie* (O.E. *tyge*), *tuck*, and *tug* (M.E. borrowings from continental Low German); so in German we have regularly *zieh-en*, *Zug*, etc.

§ 55. A little further study will reveal to us several more words in English all traceable to the same origin or root, though this is not always quite clear at first sight, e.g.—

duke, duchess, duchy, doge, ducat, duct, ductile, conduit, douche, redoubt, subdue,

and also a number of words in which the root appears with a final sibilant (= s) instead of a guttural (k), such as—

introduce, reduce, traduce.

All of these may be easily traced back to Latin originals with the element *duk*, and this we find to be practically the Indo-European form.

§ 56. Still examining words from the same group, we may draw a clear distinction between root and stem by the help of the words *education* and *reduction*: disregarding the prefixes (*e-*, “out” *re-*, “back,”) entirely, it is easy to see that the elements *-duc-* and *-tion* in the words are common, and the difference of the formation lies in the fact that the one word has the vowel *-a-* between root and suffix (strictly speaking suffixes, *-t-io-n*) and the other has not. This *-a-* is called a *formative suffix* or stem suffix: it is added in Latin to the root before other suffixes (especially those of inflexion), and seems to serve no other purpose than that of joining on the suffix to the root: thus compare the Latin *duc-tum* (whence our *-duct*) with *educ-a-tum* (whence our *-ducat-*). Hence we may define a stem in contradistinction to a root as a root + formative suffix: but very often, as the examples show, there is no formative suffix, and then stem and root are of course identical.

§ 57. So far we have taken Latin words in English, and we have selected those which easily exhibit the root in a simple form; we might do the same with native words, thus—

bear (vb.), *bearer*, *overbearing*, *forbear*,
all show a common element [*bear*] which is practically the Teutonic root [*ber*] in its modern English form.

* (a) Here (as is usually the case in modern English native words) there is no stem suffix, so that *ber* is both stem and root: the word appears in Modern German (*b* unshifted as usual, § 49c (iii)) as *bär-en*: the original Indo-European form would be *bhe?* (§ 47d (ii)), which is represented in Greek by *φέρω*, in Latin by *fer-o*.

§ 58. If we write down beside the word *bear*, or any of its derivatives mentioned in the last section, the words

bore (pret. of *bear*) and *bare* (archaic pret.), *born* and *borne* (past part.), *birth* (properly, a thing *born*), *burthen* or *burden* (a thing *borne*), *bier* (a thing for bearing),

we recognise at once that all these are connected by meaning and form: the common element or root will evidently be *b*r*, but we do not at once see what vowel to insert in place of the asterisk given above. We proceed to examine the etymology of the words, and we find that the words *birth*, *burthen*, *bier* are derivatives, and contain what are called mutated vowels (§ 63)—i.e. vowels which are modifications of stronger ones, produced in historic times in the process of derivation: hence we shall not seek the root vowels in these words, and so may exclude them from our survey for the present. We are then left with

bear, *bare*, *bore*, *born* and *borne*,

and further investigation does not enable us to find one root vowel from which these different types proceed, though it enables us to discover certain relations between them. Hence, though we may write the Teutonic roots of *bear*, *bare*, *born* as *ber*, *bar*, *bor*, we can only write the general root as *b*r*. Similarly the common Teutonic root of *bind*, *band*, *bundle* must, strictly speaking, be represented by *b*nd*, though the vowel of each of the three separate roots can easily be given.

§ 59. As far as is known roots have never existed independently, though the loss of affixes of formation and inflexion in English has often resulted in producing what is practically a root form. *Man*, for example, looks like a mere root, and is identical in form with the root *man* from whence it comes; but comparison with its earliest forms in the Teutonic languages and further comparison with other Indo-European tongues alike show us that it has only reached its present root-like appearance after losing suffixes in process of time. If we then realise that roots are to be regarded as theoretical or hypothetical forms deduced by etymologists from the actual phenomena of language, we shall commit no serious error in regarding

them (with Whitney) as the germs or raw "material, out of which were developed verbs, nouns (adjectives and substantives), and pronouns, and through these the other parts of speech."

§ 60. Understanding clearly what has been said as to root, stem, etc., the student may find the following concise definitions of use:—

"The root of a word is the monosyllable which results from depriving it of any affixes it may have, and restoring the primitive form of the vowel if this has disappeared or undergone alteration."

(a) A Teutonic root we shall then understand to be a root as defined above in its primitive Teutonic form—that is to say, with the Teutonic forms of the Indo-European consonants and vowels. By the Indo-European or Aryan root we understand a root in its absolutely original Indo-European form.

Affixes are either suffixes or prefixes.

"A suffix is a syllable or letter attached to a root or to another suffix or other suffixes for the purposes of language;

"(i) a formative suffix connects the root with another suffix, especially in inflexion;

"(ii) a flexional or derivative suffix accompanies an alteration of meaning, the former causing such grammatical changes as that of singular to plural, present to past, etc., the latter producing what is recognised as a fresh word."

"A prefix serves the same purpose as a derivative suffix, but is placed before the word to which it is attached; it is never added to a bare root." (See § 59.)

"The stem of a word is

"(a) root + formative suffix;

"(b) root (whether exhibiting formative suffix or not), which shows a modification of the original vowel; or

"(c) is identical with the root where there is neither formative suffix nor modification of vowel."

§ 61. Gradation.—We observed in connection with the words *bear—born* (§ 58), that in some words, obviously connected in meaning (as here, where one is the past participle of the other), the common element (*b*r*) cannot be expressed with a common vowel. A distinction between the vowels of the two forms here given is to be traced back to the primitive Indo-European. The name given to differences between vowel sounds in two or more stems when these differences arise from distinctions due to primitive Indo-European is called Gradation. We find gradation in all the “strong” verbs—*i.e.* those verbs which do not require a suffix to form their preterite tense (§ 168)—but gradation is not confined to them: thus *bind—bundle* and *bind—bond* exhibit the gradation as clearly as *bind—bound*. On the other hand, of course, all vowel-changes are not gradations; thus, as we shall see, *thought—think*, *man—men* exhibit changes of a totally distinct nature from those treated above (see § 63).

(a) Gradation is frequently called by the German name *Ablaut* (“off-sound”).

§ 62. The chief varieties of gradation in modern English are most clearly shown by the strong verbs; but here, where Old English often kept four forms, modern English has rarely retained more than two, levelling under one sound roots originally distinct. The following are representative of the chief gradation-series as they appear in modern English (which series serve as a basis for classifying the “strong” verbs, § 169):—

(i) drive	drove	driven
(ii) cleave	[clave]	cloven
(iii) drink	drank	drunk
(iv) bear	[bare]	born
(v) give	gave	
(vi) wake	woke	

to which we may add a representative of a class which has stems exhibiting the results of gradation, reduplication, and contraction (§ 169a);

(vii) fall	fell.
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(a) Gradation being an Indo-European phenomenon, we find it in Greek and Latin, as well as in German, English, etc.

(b) The series given above as illustrating gradation in Modern English appear in Old English as follows :—

Inf.	Prot.	Prot. Plur.	Prot. Part.
(i) <i>drifan</i>	<i>drāf</i>	<i>drifon</i>	<i>drifen</i>
(ii) <i>clēofan</i>	<i>clēaf</i>	<i>clufon</i>	<i>clofen</i>
(iii) <i>drincan</i>	<i>dranc</i>	<i>druncon</i>	<i>druncen</i>
(iv) <i>beran</i>	<i>bær</i>	<i>bæron</i>	<i>boren</i>
(v) <i>giefan</i>	<i>geaf</i>	<i>gēafon</i>	<i>giefen</i>
(vi) <i>wacan</i>	<i>wōc</i>	<i>[wūcon]</i>	<i>[wacen]</i> ,
and (reduplicating)			
(vii) <i>feallan</i>	<i>fēoll</i>	<i>fēollon</i>	<i>feallen</i> .

Compare with these (besides the obviously similar Modern German gradations) :—

- (i) *πείθω, πέποιθα, ἐπιθον* ; *fidus, fœdus, fides.*
- (ii) *ἐλεύ(θ)σομαι, ἐλήλουθα, ἔλυθον* ; *dūco, dūcem.*
- (iii) *δέρκομαι, δέδορκα, ἔδρακον* ; *mens, moneo, memini.*
- (iv) *στέλλω, στολή, ἐστάλην* ; *pello, pulsus.*
- (v) *τρέπω, τέτροφα, τραπέσθαι* ; *sequor, socius.*
- (vi) *ἄγω, στρατηγός* ; *āgo, ōgi.*
- (vii) *cado, cecidi* ; *pello, pepuli.*

And observe that Greek perfects are regularly reduplicated.

§ 63. Mutation (or "Umlaut"—Ger. *um*, "about," *Laut*, "sound") is the modification brought about in the vowel of a syllable by the influence of a vowel in the following suffix. This suffix has generally disappeared or become disguised in Modern English, so that the cause which has produced the mutation is no longer apparent. In the cases here dealt with the vowel producing mutation was originally an *i*. Examples of mutated vowels are very common.

(i) In plurals of nouns—*men* from *man* ; *mice* from *mouse* (§ 103).

(a) O.E. *mann* pl. *menn* (for *mann* + *-i*) : so *mūs*, pl. *mȳs*. Cp. Ger. *Männer, Mäuse*.

(ii) In gender—*vixen* from *fox*.

(b) O.E. *fox*, fem. *fywen* (§ 117*d*) : cp. Ger. *Füchs-in*.

(iii) In comparison—*old*, *elder*, etc.

(c) O.E. *cald*, *iældra* : cp. Ger. *alt*, *älter*.

(iv) In derivation—*set* from *sat* (pret. stem of *sit*), *strength* from *strong*, *thimble* from *thumb*: and in many other instances noticed in various parts of this book.

(d) O.E. *set* (pret. stem of *sittan*) gives *settan* (to *set*) for *set* + *ian*. *Strang*, "strong"; *strengðu*, "strength." *þūma*, "thumb"; *þymel*, "thimble."

CHAPTER VII.

TRANSPOSITION, ASSIMILATION, ADDITION, AND DISAPPEAR- ANCE OF SOUNDS IN ENGLISH.

§ 64. We have already discussed some of the changes that certain sounds have passed through before the words they occur in are to be regarded as English. In the following sections [§§ 65-70] we deal with the changes incident to words during their life in English itself, and we therefore confine ourselves here to changes in the native element, or in foreign words after adoption into English. The Romance element, however, is of such importance that we devote some further space (in the next chapter) to its history before it passed into English.

§ 65. Metathesis is the name given to the transposition of sounds which sometimes takes place, especially when one of them is *r*: thus *burn* and *brand* are from the same root, but in the one case the *b* and *r* are separated by a vowel, in the other they combine before it; so *three* and *thirteen*. *Clasp* is a metathesis form of *clap-se* (§ 190e), and *grasp* similarly stands for *grap-se* (from same source as *grope*). In some dialects *ax* is commonly heard for *ask*: the latter is the only form recognised in standard English, but in the older stages both forms were common.

§ 66. Assimilation.—Two consonants of which one is hard (voiceless) and the other soft (voiced) become both hard or both soft: thus, for instance, the suffix *-s* in nouns and verbs is pronounced either hard [s] or soft [z] according as it follows a hard or soft consonant, as e.g. *bids* [d + z], *bites* [t + s]. Similarly inflexional *d* in the weak verbs is either *d* or *t* under the same circumstances, as e.g. *hoped* [p + t] but *snubbed* [b + d] (the spelling is often misleading: see § 40).

Letters produced by the same, or nearly the same, organs are often assimilated: thus the lip letters *f* or *v* + *m* > *fm*, *vm* > *mm* which is now reduced in pronunciation (often in spelling) to single *m*: e.g. *wimen* for older *wifmen*, i.e. *wif* + *men*; so *Lammas* = O.E. *hlāfmaesse* = *hlāf* (loaf) + *maesse* (mass).

§ 67. Disappearances.—Sounds may disappear from the beginning of a word (Aphaeresis), from the body (Syncope), or the end (Apocope), the causes being mainly the predominance of accented to the detriment of unaccented syllables with the accompanying tendency to contraction and the decay of inflexional syllables.

APOCOPE.—The whole history of the language illustrates this by the decay of the inflexional system (§ 5):

* (a) e.g. "Four good sons saw the church of Our Lady" would have been in O.E. *Fēower gōd-e sun-a sǣw-on þa ciric-an u-r-e hlāf-dig-an*.

Other notable instances besides those connected with inflexion are seen in the disappearance of guttural sounds at the end of a word (often preserved in the spelling): e.g. *though*, *dough*, *through*, *day*.

* (b) O.E. *ðeah*, *dāh*, *ðurh*, *daeg*: cp. Ger. *doch*, *Teig*, *durch*, *Tag*.

SYNCOPE.—The disappearance of a guttural from the body of a word, especially between two vowels, is very common; thus, *rain*, *nail*, *sail*, *tile* have lost a medial *g*.

* (c) O.E. *regn*, *naegl*, *segl*, *tigle* (from L. *tegula*, § 23a): cp. Ger. *Regen*, *Nagel*, *Segel*, *Ziegel*.

The reduction of double consonant sounds to single ones (the doubled consonant often arising from assimilation, § 66) is the rule in English, for double consonants are very rarely pronounced; thus we write *offal* (= *off* + *fall*) with double *f*, but we only pronounce one.

APHAERESIS.—We can no longer pronounce without difficulty such combinations as *hl*, *hr*; hence *loud*, *lord*, *raw* have dropped their original initial aspirate. So, too, the first element in *en* or *kn* is no longer sounded, though it appears in writing in some words, as e.g. *knee*, *knight*. *Hw* (now written *wh*) generally drops its aspirate—at least in the south—as e.g. *what*, *white*, etc.

* (d) O.E. *hlūd*, *hlaforð*, *hræw*, *onēo*, *cnicht*, *hwæt*, *hwit*, with which cp. Ger. *laut*, *roh*, *Knic* [*k* sounded], *Knecht* [*k* sounded], *was*, *weiss*.

Other striking instances of aphaeresis are seen in *gin* (a trap), a short form of *engine*, and such abbreviations as *bus* (for *omnibus*), *mend* (cp. *amend*), *vanguard* (for *avant-guard*), etc.; *alone* (= *all + one*) has the short form *lone*.

§ 68. Additions.—Sounds are added under certain conditions. The process is called *prosthesis* at the beginning of a word, *epenthesis* in its body, *epithesis* at its end.

PROSTHESIS.—This is rare as a process of English word formation. It is seen in the word *newt*, which arises from an *ewt*, *ewt* being the older form. The archaic *uncle* stands for *mine uncle*, and *nonce* owes its initial *n* to the M.E. dative of the definite article. In Romance words taken ready made into English examples are somewhat more common: see *haughty*, *estate* (§ 82).

(a) *Nonce* is found only in the archaic phrase "for the *nonce*" = M.E. *for then ones*, where *then* is the M.E. representative of O.E. *ðæn* and *ones* (= *once*) is treated as a substantive; the phrase means "for this once only," "for this occasion."

EPENTHESIS.—A notable instance is the intrusion of *b*, *p* after *m* before another consonant (especially *l*, *r*) when these consonants originally came together: *slumber*, *bramble* owe their *b* to this cause; similarly *empty* has an intrusive *p*. In *thunder*, *kindred*, *spindle* the *d* is epenthetic; so in many Romance words in which the intrusion took place before the words became English, e.g. *tender*, *resemble*, *number*, etc., see § 83.

(b) *Slumber* (vb.) is the M.E. *slumbren* and *slunren*, O.E. *sluma* (sb.); cp. Ger. *schlummern*. *Bramble* is O.E. *bremel*. *Empty* is O.E. *æmtig*. So *thunder* = O.E. *þunor* (cp. Ger. *Donner*). *Kindred* is O.E. *cynn-ræden* (§ 125b). *Spindle* = O.E. *spinl*, "instrument for spinning" (§ 126b).

EPITHESES.—Final excrescent sounds [not letters] are not very common. *Thumb*, for instance, has an apparently epithetic *b* [now, however, mute]; but originally this was

not final [O.E. *puma* > M.E. *thomb-e*], so that its growth was epenthetic. Several adverbs and prepositions ending originally in -s (§ 206c) have excrescent -t, due possibly to analogy with verbal forms in -st (2nd pers. sing.): e.g. *amongst*, *betwixt*, *against*, *amidst*, *whilst* (similarly in some dialects *onst* may be heard for *once*).

§ 69. Hard letters become soft (i.e. are "voiced," § 32) in some instances (besides in assimilation, § 66). Thus we have *su-g-ar* from F. *su-c-re*; *bathe*, *breathe*, *wreathe* from *bath*, *breath*, *wreath*; so cp. *life* and *lives*, *loaf* and *loaves*, and similar instances (§ 101 (ü)).

(a) O.E. *prūt* and *prȳte* become *proud* and *pride*. In *bath*, *breath*, etc., the hard letter is final, but *bathe*, *breathe*, etc., represent *bath-en*, *breath-en* (infinitive), and the softening (voicing) of the consonant is due to its position between two vowels; so in *loaf* and the like *f* final is represented by *v* where this stood before an originally syllabic inflexion: *loav-es* < O.E. *hlāfas*.

§ 70. The opposite change from soft to hard (unvoicing) is not common. An example is seen in *gossip*, where the *p* was originally *b*, the word being a compound of *god* + *sib* (*d* + *s* > *ss*, pron. *s*, § 66), meaning "related in God."

* (a) *Sib*, "akin," is cognate with Ger. *Sippe*, "kin."

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE HISTORY AND FORM OF FRENCH WORDS ADOPTED IN ENGLISH.

§ 71. As we have seen there is a very large portion of the vocabulary we use which is of Romance origin, and nearly the whole of this has been taken from French (§§ 14-16), with very slight changes. But the French words themselves are for the most part of Latin origin, and it will be useful for us to consider the way in which Latin words pass into French, more especially as we have at times formed words directly from Latin, but on the model of similar words which we have taken from French.

Thus, for instance, *tremendous*, *stupendous* have been coined by us from the L. *tremendus*, *stupendus*, the mediæval adjectives of *tremo*, *stupeo*, but their termination *-ous* is due to analogy with (i.e. unconscious or conscious imitation of) *-ous* in so many English adjectives, e.g. *ferocious*, *odious*, *joyous*; but this *-ous* is from Fr. *eux* (older *eus*), L. *-osus*, and is not directly from L. *osus* (§ 152g).

§ 72. There are two distinct strata of Latin words in French as in English, as has already been indicated. There are

(a) The words which we may call native or home-grown French words, being the natural offspring of the popular Latin *spoken* language from which French is formed; in fact, these are the popular Latin spoken words grown older and modified by natural causes in the mouths of Frenchmen; and

(b) Words deliberately formed from book-Latin.

The latter have naturally kept much nearer their original written form, and are therefore much more easily recognisable; they present almost exactly the same appearance in English as in French, and will give us little trouble and demand little attention in spite of their large numbers. It is usual to call words of this class words of "learned" formation, the other class being known as words of "popular origin"; the latter grew, the former were made.

§ 73. The steps which mark the passage from popular spoken Latin into French are briefly these:—

- (i) The accented Latin syllable survives.
- (ii) The syllables (one or two) following it vanish entirely or are reduced to a mute *e*.
- (iii) The unaccented vowel preceding it disappears, unless that vowel is in the first syllable; and
- (iv) A medial consonant especially between two vowels generally disappears.

Thus *L. bon(i)tātem* > *F. bonté*, whence *Eng. bounty*.

L. ma(g)īstrum > *F. maistre* (now *maître*), whence *Eng. master*.

L. se(c)ūrum > *F. seur* (now *sœur*), whence *Eng. sure*.

L. ro(t)ūndum > *F. roond* (now *rond*), whence *Eng. round*.

§ 74. But words of "learned" formation, made from written Latin, by adhering to the Latin spelling and forms as closely as possible, are not subject to these natural laws; thus, for instance, *van-i-ty*, *san-i-ty*, tell us by their preservation of the unaccented *i* [*L. vanitātem*, *sanitātem*] that they are not growths like *bounty*, but coinages. Now it often happens that the same original has furnished us with products of each kind (though these are not always so easily distinguished in English as they are in French, owing to our having accentuated both sets after the English model, viz., by throwing back the accent): thus Latin *frāgilis* becomes in *F. fraile* (now *frêle*), by growth, but *fragile* by formation, whence our words *frail* and *fragile*.

(a) The latter looks as if it had always preserved the Latin accent ; but this is not the case, for had it done so, the vowel (i) following the accented syllable would infallibly have disappeared ; what has really happened is that it has shifted back its accent in English from *fragile* to *fráguile*.

(b) The following are some more of these *doublets* as they are called—*i.e.*, words of precisely the same origin and elements but of different resulting forms, the said difference being due to historical causes ; it should be noticed that the "popular" words in English are mostly of Anglo-French origin, while a large portion of the "learned" formations date from the Renaissance [see § 16] : the "learned" forms are easily distinguished by their much closer presentation of the Latin forms :—

Latin	"Popular."	"Learned."
Antiquus	Antic	Antique
Balsamum	Balm	Balsam
Blasphemare	Blame	Blaspheme
Cadentia	Chance	Cadence
Camera	Chamber	Camera
Comitatus	County	Committee
Computare	Count (vb.)	Compute
Debitum	Debt (§ 41)	Debit
Dilatus	Delay	Dilate
Diurnalis	Journal	Diurnal
Factionem	Fashion	Faction
Fragilis	Frail	Fragile
Historia (Gk.)	Story	History
Hospitale	Hostel	Hospital,
	(Hotel is Hostel from its mod. Fr. form)	Spital
Humanus	Human	Humane
Lectionem	Lesson	Lection
Legalis	Loyal	Legal
so Regalis	Royal	Regal
Maiores	Mayor	Major
Paralysis (Gk.)	Palsy	Paralysis
Pauper	Poor	Pauper
Penitentia	Penance	Penitence
Potionem	Poison	Potion

Latin.	"Popular."	"Learned."
Potentem	Puissant	Potent
Quietus	Coy	Quiet
Redemptionem	Ransom	Redemption
Superficies (-facies)	Surface	Superficies
Tradition-em	Treason	Tradition
Vocalis	Vowel	Vocal

§ 75. A Tendency illustrated by words in -ion.—An important effect of this preservation of the Latin accent in French is clearly seen in the derivation of nouns, in which (as is especially the case in certain words of the Latin "third" declension) the accentuation or the apparent stem of the nominative differed from that of the oblique cases: here, as a rule, the oblique case form survived (the accusative is generally taken as a type), whence for instance the Latin *potiōnem* not *pōtio* survives in French, so that it yields *poison*, where the final *n* shows us at once that the nominative form is not its parent: here the learned formation has also adopted the common oblique shape, so that we get as a doublet (§ 74 *b*) *potion*, whence English *poison* and *potion*. Similarly F. *dent* is L. *dent-em*, not *dens*; so F. *duc* (Eng. *duke*) is L. *duc-em* not *dux*.

§ 76. We will now briefly consider the chief sound-laws explained in the last chapter in their effects upon French so far as these concern Romance words in English; in connection with which it will also be convenient occasionally to notice some of these laws operating in Latin words before these passed into French.

§ 77. Metathesis (see § 65).

F. *troubler* (whence Eng. *trouble*) < pop. L. *turbulare* (from *turbula* dim. of *turba*, "crowd").

§ 78. Assimilation (see § 66).—This is very common in Latin, notable instances being seen in the prefixes which constantly assimilate their final consonant to the consonant

beginning the word to which they are prefixed. The word *assimilate*, for instance, is an example, being derived from the L. *assimilare* (for *-ate* see § 194*a*), which stands for *ad*, "to," + *-similare*, "liken" (from *similis*, "like"). Other examples of the same nature are given under the Latin prefixes (§ 198): some typical instances are *offer* (*ob* + *ferre*), *aggressive* (*ad* + *gressus*, part. *gradī*), *collect* (*cum* + *lectum*, sup. of *legere*), *impatient* (*in*, "not" + *patient-em*, part. *pati*). So a soft letter assimilates to a hard one frequently before the participial or supine suffix *-tus*, *-tum*: we get, for example, *agent* from the pres. part. *agent-em* (*agere*), but *act* from the supine stem *ac-tum*, which stands for *ag* + *tum*. Frequently (as also in English) the result of the complete assimilation of two consonants is to cause the disappearance of one of them; thus *examine* comes from the Latin *examinare* (whence F. *examiner* and our *examine*), which comes from the L. *exāmen*, that stands for *exammen* for *ex-ag-men* (from *ex* + *ag-ere*).

This has so far been illustrated from changes that had taken place before the French period: in the formation of French itself the same tendency continued but to a greater extent; thus, for example, the last word instanced produced the word *essaim*, "swarm" [*examen* is, of course, its learned "doublet"], where the *k* + *s* heard in *ex* are reduced to *s* + *s*. So our word *essay* or *assay* is the F. *essai* from L. *exagium*.

Other assimilations resulting generally in the disappearance of a consonant (Syncope) are worth noticing:—

p disappears between two consonants: thus L. *computare* (*cum* + *putare*) becomes in F. *compter* and *conter*, whence (from the Anglo-F. form of the latter, viz., *counter*) we have *count*: its doublet is *compute*. So *hospitale* gives *hostel*, *hotel* (§ 74, *b*); *hospitem* gives *host* (Mod. F. *hôte*); *captivus* gives *caitiff* [and *captive*]; *capitale* gives *chattel* [and *capital*]. The combination *ct* after a vowel commonly passes into *t* (but influencing the previous vowel): thus L. *factum* gives F. *fait* and Eng. *feat* (of which *fact* is a doublet): so *conduit* comes from L. *conduct-um*.

§ 79. Apocope (see § 67). The whole history of the derivation of French from spoken Latin illustrates this by the tendency of the syllable or syllables that follow the accented syllable to disappear or pass into "mute" *e*: see § 73 (ii); an instance seen in a whole class of words is furnished by the abstract suffix *-ty* < F. *-té* < L. *-tatem*. As other examples notice *due* from F. *deu* (now *dā*, pp. of *devoir*) from a pop. L. *debutus*, a perf. part. coined from *debere*, "owe": contrast its learned doublet *debit* (*debitum*). *Degree* is the F. *degrét* or *degre* (now *degré*) from L. *de*, "down" + *gradus*, "step": *degrade* is practically its doublet (*degradare* < *de* + *gradus*); but *agree* is *a* (= L. *ad*) + F. *gret* or *gre* (now *gré*) from L. *gratus*, "pleasing"; so the archaic *maigre*, "in spite of," corresponds with F. *malgré* (quasi L. *mal-um* *grat-um*).

§ 80. Syncope (see § 67) is amply illustrated in the last paragraph, in § 73, and in the words of "popular" formation given in § 74.

(a) *allow*, owing to this process of syncopation, represents two different words (cp. *-gree*, § 79): in its usual sense "permit, grant," it is the L. *allocare*, "grant, lease" (*ad* + *locus*); in its archaic sense "approve," it is *ad* + *laudare*; both fell together in older French as *alouer* [*allouer*—*allocare*—"give a stipend," alone survives], and became in M.E. *alouen*.

§ 81. Aphaeresis (see § 67) is seen in the habitual dropping of the Latin *h* in French, and this is felt in some English words where we write the letter but do not pronounce it, e.g., *honour*, *heir*, *hour*, etc.: the symbol has disappeared in *ostler* = *hosteler*, "hostel-keeper."

Diamond had lost its initial vowel in French where it is *diamant*, a shorter form of *adiamant* from L. *adamanta*; its doublet is *adamant*.

* (a) L. *adamas*, acc. *adamanta*, is Gk. *ἀδάμας*, a very hard stone: lit. "untamable," from *ἀ-*, "un," and *δαμᾶν*, "tame" [*δαμᾶν* is cognate with *domare* and *tame*, § 47b (iii)].

Strange has lost initial vowel: F. *estrangle* (now *étrange*) from L. *extraneus* from *extra*; *extraneous* is its doublet; the vowel is kept in the verb *estrangle*.

p disappears (from sound) in the initial (Greek) combination *ps*: *psalm*, *psalter*, etc.: so in modern formations as *psychology* and the like.

§ 82. Prosthesis (see § 68). The combinations *st*, *sp*, *sm*, *sc* when initial commonly prefixed an *e* in French, as e.g. *espace* (L. *spatium*), *époux* (older *espoux*, L. *sponsus*, pp. of *spondeo*, "promise"); this *e*, however, is not generally retained in the English forms: e.g. *space*, *spouse*. *Estate*, however, shows it = F. *estat* (now *état*) from L. *status* (pp. *stare*, "stand"), and therefore a doublet of *state*: so *esquire* is F. *escuyer* (now *écuyer*) from L. *scutarius*, "shield-bearer," from *scutum*, "shield"; doublet *squire*; *escutcheon* and *scutcheon* are from the same word. *Especial* and *special* are O.F. *especial* from L. *specialis*, adj. formed from *species*, "kind": so *espy* and *spy* from same root. *Establish* (O.F. *establier* now *établir*) is from *stabilis*, "stable," from *stare*.

h, though it generally disappears from Latin words in French, is in a very few cases inserted where it is absent in the Latin original. Thus the first syllable of *haughty* (the *-y* is an English adj. suffix, § 150e) is the French *haut* from L. *altus*: so *howl* is O.F. *huller* (now *hurler*) from L. *ululare*.

§ 83. Epenthesis (see § 68) is seen in *tendre* (whence *tender*) from L. *ten(e)rem*; *humble* from L. *hum(i)lem*, *number* (F. *nombre*) from L. *num(e)rus*; *resemble*, *semblance*, etc. from F. *sembler*, from L. *sim(u)lare*, from *similis*, "like"; *chamber*, F. *chambre*, L. *cam(e)ra*.

§ 84. Epithesis (see § 68) is seen in *tyrant* (the Mod. F. form is *tyran*) from L. *tyrannus* (from Gk.).

CHAPTER IX.

INTRODUCTORY REMARKS ON GRAMMAR, THE PARTS OF SPEECH, ETC.

§ 85. The Grammar of a Language consists of statements of the way in which words in that language are used, singly and in combination, for the expression of thought.

(a) The word is sometimes also used in a wider sense to cover the study of the various methods and forms employed during the whole existence of the language.

(b) Hence the grammarian does not make rules to teach us to speak correctly ; but he calls attention to the methods employed by writers and speakers whose methods of writing and speaking are approved by the educated section of the community. When we speak of an expression as "ungrammatical" or 'bad grammar,' we simply mean that educated people do not approve of its employment.

§ 86. The unit of speech is a sentence, *i.e.* a combination of words—or much more rarely (in English) a word—which expresses a thought with intelligibility and completeness: thus

go ! ; I run ; he really ought not to behave so foolishly
are sentences : but

going ; I running ; he not behave

are not sentences.

§ 87. Words are classified by grammarians according to the distinctive functions they perform in enabling us to express our ideas in language. The classes thus made are called Parts of Speech. These are—

- (1) The NOUN, which gives a name: *Thomas, man, folly.*
- (2) The PRONOUN, which stands for a Noun, indicating without actually naming: *he, who, self.*
- (3) The ADJECTIVE, which qualifies a Noun, describing or further defining the thing named: *good, the, fourth.*
- (4) The VERB, which makes an assertion: *tells, is, ate.*
- (a) *Assert* is here used to cover *inquiry, command, entreaty*, as well as mere statement.
- (5) The ADVERB, which modifies a Verb or Adjective, limiting the assertion or qualification; it may also be used to modify another adverb: *quickly, very, thus.*
- (6) The CONJUNCTION, which joins words or groups of words together: *and, whilst, because.*
- (7) The PREPOSITION, which joins a noun to a word, indicating some relation between the noun and the word thus joined with it: *of, in, against.*
- (8) The INTERJECTION, which is a mere cry or exclamation: *oh! alas! hah!*

§ 88. Flexion.—Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs (and, in a few cases, Adverbs) undergo certain changes of form for corresponding changes of meaning: consider, for example, the difference of form and meaning between *boy* and *boys*; *want* and *wanted*; *tall* and *taller*; *he* and *his*. Such a change of form is called inflexion (or flexion), and any additional letter or syllable added for this purpose is known as an inflexion or inflexional suffix.

(a) *Flexion* is from the stem of L. *flew-um*, supine of *flecto*, "bend."

§ 89. That part of grammar which deals with the method and use of inflexion is called Accidence: that part of grammar which is concerned with the relations of words to one another in forming sentences is called Syntax.

But since the division between Accidence and Syntax is an entirely artificial one, we cannot absolutely separate the one from the other. In the following eight chapters (x.-xvii.) we shall devote our attention mainly to the methods of inflexion and formation of the various parts of speech (including for convenience grammatical classification), but the syntactical relations and terms discussed in the next paragraphs will require to be understood to render some parts of the matter intelligible.

§ 90. A sentence is composed of

- (1) a subject, concerning which something is asserted; and
- (2) a predicate, containing the assertion.

Thus—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
<i>I</i>	<i>run</i>
<i>Thomas</i>	<i>is unhappy</i>
<i>To dance</i>	<i>is very pleasant.</i>

In such sentences as *Is he ready? Ought Thomas to go? Go!* we separate the two members, thus—

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE.
<i>he</i>	<i>is . . . ready</i>
<i>Thomas</i>	<i>ought . . . to go</i>
<i>[you]</i>	<i>go.</i>

§ 91. It is evident from the definitions and the examples that (1) the subject must be a noun ("name") or a combination of words which is equivalent in function to a name and so performs the part of a noun; and

- (2) the predicate must contain a verb.

§ 92. A sentence may be

- (i) a simple structure such as

The boy runs (SIMPLE Independent SENTENCE), or

- (ii) a union of two or more such sentences joined by a conjunction as

The boy runs and the girl dances (COMPOUND SENTENCE), or

- (iii) an independent sentence joined with one or more sub-sentences (or clauses) which do not give a complete and intelligible sense when taken apart from the former; these clauses perform the function of Noun, Adjective, or Adverb, and are called dependent clauses; the independent or principal sentence, together with the dependent clauses, forms what is called a COMPLEX sentence; e.g. in

The boy says | that he is ill

- (1) *The boy says* is an independent or PRINCIPAL sentence;

- (2) *that he is ill* names the thing he says, and is therefore a dependent NOUN-CLAUSE.

Similarly, in

The boy runs | when he is cold,

the second element is an ADVERBIAL clause [limits "runs"]; and in

The boy takes the cake | which is burnt,

which is burnt is an ADJECTIVE clause, for it qualifies *cake*.

§ 93. Logically every sentence—simple, complex, or dependent—may be regarded as consisting of only two parts, the subject and the predicate, but the former term is generally restricted in grammar to a noun (or its equivalent) without any of its attributes (or qualifying words or phrases) while the verb alone (or the verb with such other help as is necessary for it to make a complete assertion, §§ 230, 231) is called the predicate: thus if we take the sentence

The brave little boy saved his brother's life,

the word *boy* is the grammatical subject, and the word *saved* is the predicate.

(a) The subject is said to be in the **Nominative Case** (see § 114).

§ 94. In the above sentence the word *life* is said to be the object (or direct object) of the verb *saved*; that is to say, it denotes the matter upon which the action expressed by the verb is directly exercised, and is joined to the verb without the intervention of a preposition.

(a) The direct object of a verb is said to be in the **Objective Case** (see § 114).

§ 95. A verb which takes a direct object is called **Transitive**: other verbs are **Intransitive**.

(a) *L. transitivus*—*transit-um*, sup. of *transire* = *trans*, "across" + *-ire*, "go": *in-* in *intransitive* = "not."

(b) See further on the classification of verbs in § 157

CHAPTER X.

THE NOUN.

(a) Classification.

§ 96. The name of anybody or anything, animate or inanimate, material or immaterial, is a Noun.

(a) Derivation.—F. *nom*, "name"; from L. *nom-en*, "name."

(b) It follows from the definition that any word (no matter to what class it generally belongs), or any combination of words, may, by being regarded merely as a name, be used as a Noun. Examples are—

He yearns for the *Unknowable* (Adjective used as Noun).

Never is a long day (Adverb used as Noun).

Let us have no *ifs* and *buts* (Conjunctions used as Nouns).

What you say is mere nonsense

I say, "*Do not go*"

I say *that you ought not to go*

} (Clauses etc., as Nouns).

(c) The word Noun is used by some grammarians to include not only what we here call Noun (Noun-Substantive or Substantive), but also Adjective and Pronoun.

§ 97. Nouns are divided into two main classes:—

(i) A Common Noun is the name an object has in common with other members of its class: e.g., *man*, *city*, *river*.

(ii) A Proper Noun is the name an object has as peculiar or proper to itself, as distinguishing it from all other objects: e.g. *Cicero*, *Paris*, *Cam*.

(a) *Proper* means literally "own": L. *propri-us*.

§ 98. Further special names are given to certain kinds of Nouns.

(i) A **Collective Noun** denotes a number of persons or other animals taken together as constituting a single thing : e.g. *school, assembly, brigade, crowd, flock*.

(ii) An **Abstract Noun** is the name of a quality, state, condition : *stupidity, ease, decay*.

(iii) A **Verbal Noun** may be formed from any Verb :—

(a) By putting "to" before it : *To eat* is necessary.

(b) By adding *-ing* to it : *Eating* is necessary.

(a) If we substitute "food" for "to eat" or "eating" in the last examples, we see at once that we are right in regarding these forms as nouns.

(b) Collective Nouns are nearly always Common : see the examples above. Occasionally they are used like Proper Nouns, as when we say "*Parliament* meets to-day" ; with which usage may be compared such a sentence as "*Father* is coming," where the speaker uses the common noun *father* as if it were the proper name of one particular person.

(c) Class names, whether such as *man, pig, knife*, denoting individual objects, or such as *oxygen, cloth, steel*, denoting the whole of the class, are all reckoned as common.

(d) It is unnecessary to group Abstract Nouns (and Verbal Nouns, which evidently form a class of Abstracts), as either Common or Proper : they are generally considered, however, to belong to the former class.

(b) *The Inflections.*

§ 99. Nouns have some Inflections which mark Number and Case.

(i) NUMBER.

§ 100. The distinction between—

(1) the Singular Number, the form of a noun used to denote one object ; and (2) the Plural Number, the form used to denote more than one,

is usually made by the inflexion *s*. The general rule is :—

Add *s* to the singular to form the plural: thus, *cat-s*, *exception-s*, *adjective-s*.

But after sibilant sounds (§ 34) we must add *-es*: thus *loss-es*, *equinox-es*, *wish-es*, *ditch-es*.

(a) *-es* is the fuller and earlier form, which is contracted to *-s* wherever the sound allows of it.

(b) Notice that some words that end in a sibilant sound are written with a final mute *e*: such only add the letter *-s* to the eye, but to the ear they add the syllable *-es*: e.g. *smudge-s*, *rose-s*, *maze-s*.

(c) *History of the Plural Suffix -es, -s*. In Old English one class of nouns formed its plural nominative and accusative by the inflexion *-as*, which became *-es* (also spelt *-is*, *-ys*, *-us*) in Middle English, and was further reduced to *-s* wherever possible in Modern English. The nearly universal use of *-es*, *-s*, as the plural suffix in preference to the other modes was partly due to Norman-French influence, for this language also formed its plural by a sibilant (*-es*, *-s*, *-z*), having adopted the *-s* of the Latin Acc. Plur., masc. and fem. (*as*, *os*, *es*, *us*).

* (d) e.g. O.E.	dōm-as	M.E.	doom-es (-is, -ys)	Modern	doom-s
	cyning-as		king-es		king-s
	hlaforð-es		lord-es		lord-s
	fisc-as		fisch-es		fish-es
Anglo-F.	flur-es		flour-es		flower-s
	leon-es		leoun-s		lion-s
	seriant-es		seriaunt-z		serjeant-s

§ 101. Some changes which take place on the addition of the plural suffix require notice.

(i) *-y* preceded by a consonant (or *qu-*) becomes *-ies*: e.g. *cry*, *cries*—*fancy*, *fancies*—*soliloquy*, *soliloquies*; but *donkey-s*, *boy-s*, *day-s*, and other words in which the *y* is preceded by a vowel, follow the general rule.

(a) For a few words ending in *-o* preceded by a consonant, we write the plural in *-oes* (without however adding a syllable): as e.g. *hero*, *heroes*—*potato*, *potatoes*.

(ii) Some nouns ending in the sound *f* (sometimes spelt *-fe*) change the *f* sound into *v* (always spelt *ve*) before adding the plural *s* (= *z*). In all these the final *f* is preceded either by *l* or by a long vowel. Examples are *calf*, *calves*—*leaf*, *leaves*—*knife*, *knives*: similarly *life*, *loaf*, *thief*, *wife*, *self*, *shelf*, *wolf*.

(a) All the above words are of pure English origin; but other Teutonic words follow the general rule,

- (i) when the vowel sound is short: *cliff-s*, *muff-s*, *ruff-s*, *stuff-s*;
- (ii) when the vowel sound is long oo: *roofs*, *hogs* (rarely *hooves*);
- and (iii) occasionally when other long vowels precede the *f* sound: *five-s*, *reef-s*, *strife-s*.

(b) Words which have reached us through the French regularly take -s: e.g. *brief-s*, *chief-s*, *grief-s*, *gulf-s*, *safe-s*.

(c) *Wharf*, *dwarf* are usually found in the plural *wharfs*, *dwarfs*; but *wharves*, *dwarves* are also seen. *Scarf* generally makes *scarves*: sometimes *scarfs*.

(d) In O.E. *f* had usually the sound of the modern *f*: this sound has been preserved as a final sound, as in *life*, *thief* (§ 69a); but between vowels, or between vowels and voiced consonants, O.E. *f* had the sound of *v*, which is still preserved in the plurals *lives*, *thieves*, etc. Where we find *f* retained in the plural we may set it down to the influence of French words and to the general tendency in English to have the root of a word identical in singular and plural. In verbs whose stem terminated in *f* in O.E. the old sound—i.e. *v* (between vowels)—has been preserved by the continuance of a following inflexion throughout the M.E. period, thus *live*, *believe*, *strive*, *thieve*, etc. (cp. nouns *life*, *belief*, *strife*, *thief*, etc.).

* (e) Thus O.E. *lif-ian* (inf.) pronounced *livian* = M.E. *liv-en*, *liv-e*, Mod. E. *live*, but O.E. *lif* (subst.) = M.E. *lif*, Mod. E. *life*.

Similarly *love* terminates in *v* sound both as substantive and verb because it stands for O.E. *luf-ian* (inf.) and *luf-u* (sb.) = M.E. *lou-en* and *lou-e*.

Observe that we never allow *v* to stand as a final letter, always following it by *e* mute, even after a short vowel, e.g. *have*, *give*.

§ 102. A few words have plurals in -en or -n.

(i) *Ox*, *ox-en* is the only one which shows this method clearly in modern English.

(a) *eyen* or *eyne* (eyes), *hosen* (hose), *shoon* (shoes) are archaic or dialectic.

(ii) In *childr-en*, *brethr-en*, *ki-ne* (archaic pl. of *cow*) we have the same suffix added to words which were already plural.

(b) Hence these are called double plural-forms: see § 103.

§ 103. Some plurals formed by mutation (§ 63) are in use: these are

foot, feet—goose, geese—louse, lice—man, men—mouse mice—tooth, teeth :

the result of the same process is seen in combination with a plural suffix in *brethren* (brother), *kine* (cow).

Woman being a compound of *wife* (= *wife* + *man*) has plural *women*.

(a) In O.E. *-an* was the termination in the plural of a large number of nouns (the "weak" declension); this became in M.E. *-en*, but was frequently displaced by the *-s* plural, especially in the North.

(b) *Ox-en* stands for O.E. *ox-an* plural of *ox-a*, which became in M.E. *ox-e*, whence Mod. E. *ox*: cp. Ger. *Ochse, -n* (and observe that the *-n, -en* plural is very common in German). *Ey-en, ey-ne* = O.E. *eag-an*, M.E. *eg-en, ei-en*, etc.; cp. Ger. *Aug-en*: similarly *hosen, shoon* represent O.E. *hosan, seōm*.

(c) *Child* (child) had in O.E. dropped the *-r* (which was part of the stem) in the singular, but frequently retained it in the plural, which was either *cild* (unchanged) or *cild-r-u*; from the latter we get M.E. *child-re* and *child-er* (still used dialectically): but these not seeming like plural forms, the suffix *-en* was added (in the South and Midlands): whence our form. *Calf, lamb, egg*, and others formerly exhibited an *r* of the stem in the plural, but these have disappeared, the words following the analogy of the bulk of our nouns. Cp. Ger. *Kinder, Kübber, Lämmer, Ei-er*, etc.

(d) Mutation-plurals were fairly common in O.E., the suffix of plurality causing mutation regularly disappearing (§ 63). Thus sing. *fōt*, plur. *fēt* (for hypothetical *fōt-ī*); so *gōs, gēs*; *mūs, mȳs*; *tōþ, tēþ*; *mann, monn, menn*; *bōc, bēc* (book-s), etc. Cp. Ger. *Füsse, Gäns-e, Mäus-e, Zähn-e, Männ-er, Büch-er*, etc.

(e) *Women* (pron. *wimmen*) has kept the original vowel-sound in the first syllable: O.E. *wifmen, wimmen*; nevertheless the vowel in the singular has been affected by the influence of the preceding *w*.

(f) *Cow* is in O.E. *cū*, plural *cȳ* by regular mutation (cp. Ger. *Küh-e*): to this was added in M.E. the suffix *-n*, whence our *kine* [= cattle], used now with the meaning "cattle," not as mere plural of *cow*, for which *cows* is employed.

(g) *Brethr-en* was formed in M.E. by adding the *-en* plural suffix to *Brether* or *Brethre*, mutation plur. of *Brother* (cp. Ger. *Bruder, Brüder*): in O.E. the plural was unchanged *brōðor* or with *-u* *brōðru*; rarely with mutation.

§ 104. Some plural forms are identical with the singular: such are *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*.

(a) This method was common in O.E. with neuter monosyllables, e.g. *dēor*, *scēap*, *swīn*, *hūs* (house), *wīf* (woman), *fōle*, etc.

§ 105. Several words expressing measure, weight, and similar notions may be left uninflected in the plural after numerals, as "five *foot* ten," "a *three yard* measure," "a *five pound* note."

(a) Similarly some other words may use the same forms in the singular as in the plural when the latter is taken in a collective sense: thus "he caught three little *fishes*," but "a large number of *fish*."

(b) Some Latin words in *-ies* remain unchanged in English: § 106 d.

§ 106. Some words have two forms of plurals:—

(i) Native words or words long naturalised in which the forms are of the same origin, and have both been retained to mark different shades of meaning: as a rule one of these plurals has a collective force, the "regular" formation having the regular plural sense:

e.g. brother	<i>brothers</i> (by blood)	<i>brethren</i> (of a community)
cloth	<i>cloths</i> (kinds of cloth, plur. of "a cloth")	<i>clothes</i> (clothing)
die	<i>dies</i> (instruments of coining)	<i>dice</i> (collective: the set used in gambling)
penny	<i>pennies</i> (individually)	<i>pence</i> (collective)

(a) The plural of *pea* is regularly *peas*: the form *pease* (as in *pease-pudding*) may be regarded as a collective-singular. The singular form *pea* has dropped a final *s* owing to this being taken for the mark of the plural. Similarly *cherry* was originally terminated in *s*, but this being taken for a mark of the plural has been entirely dropped in the singular. *Burial*, *riddle*, *shuttle* have dropped an *-s* in the singular from a similar cause. *Pease* is the M.E. *pese*, O.E. *pis-a*, from L. *pis-um* (see § 23). The *-s* of the root is retained to the eye in the F. *pois*. *Cherry* is the F. *cérise*, L. *cerasus*, from Gk. *képaos*; possibly from the place Cerasos. In *pence*, *dice*, the *-ce* merely represents the hard sound of *s*, as in *cloths*; in *clothes*, *dies*, *pennies*, the *s* is soft = *z*. *Pence* is a contracted form.

(ii) Foreign words, mainly scientific terms, in which the foreign plural is restricted to its technical use:

	Scientific.	Popular.
e.g. formula	<i>formulae</i>	<i>formulas</i>
index	<i>indices</i>	<i>indexes</i>
fungus	<i>fungi</i>	<i>funguses</i>

(a) In other foreign words which have retained their foreign forms the usage varies. Sometimes they make their plurals as if they were used in their own language; at others—and this is the case generally when the words become at all freely used—they are regarded as naturalised and take the usual English inflexion: e.g. *orocuces*, *asylums*, but *errata*, *addenda*.

(b) In many cases the usage varies without any such clear change of meaning as in (ii) above: e.g. *Memorandums* and *memoranda*.

(c) In a few cases where we have an anglicised form for the singular and a regular English plural formed thence, we retain a foreign plural form with a slight distinction of usage: as, for example, *cherub*, *cherubs* and *cherubim* (Hebrew)—*seraph*, *seraphs*, *seraphim* (Hebrew)—*bandit*, *bandite*, *banditti* (Ital.).

(d) Latin and Greek words ending in *-is*, even though fully naturalised, change *-is* to *-es* instead of adding a syllable: e.g. *axis*, *axes*—*analysis*, *analyses*—*crisis*, *crises*: similarly those in *-ies* remain unchanged: *species*, *series*.

§ 107. Some plural forms are treated as singular (and collective) in spite of their plural suffix:

(i) *Small-pox*, *news* are always so treated.

(a) *pox* is properly the plural of *pock*, a little pit: *pock* and *pocks* are used in this sense.

(ii) *Amends*, *tidings*, *means*, *pains* are often so treated.

(iii) *Mathematics*, *politics*, *ethics*, *dynamics*, and others formed by adding *-s* to the Greek adjective suffix *-ic*, are sometimes regarded as singulars, sometimes as plurals.

§ 108. Two words which are singular by origin are now regarded as plural owing to their ending in *-s*; these are *riches*, *eaves*. For a similar reason *alms*, *summons*, though originally singular only, are now treated either as singular or plural.

(a) *Riches* represents M.E. *richesse* of which a plural *richesses* is found: this is the French *richesse*, in which the *-esse* is the termination of an abstract noun. [The adj. *rich* is a genuine English (O.E.) word, but in the word *riches* we have it from the French, which had taken it from a Teutonic source.]

(b) *Eaves* represents M.E. *evese* of which a plural *eaveses* is found: in O.E. it is *efes* (singular); hence, we see, *s* is part of the root.

(c) *Alms* is similarly M.E. *almesse*, O.E. *almesse*; this is from the L. *eleēmosyna* (whence our *eleemosynary*) from Gk. ἐλεημοσύνη: hence the *s* is not a mark of the plural.

(d) *Summons* is in M.E. *somouns* representing O.F. *somonce* (Mod. F. *sermonce*), the feminine of O.F. *semons*, *somons* from L. *summonere*, *sub* + *monere* (Mod. F. *semondre*): hence the *s* is not a mark of the plural.

§ 109. Nouns that have no plurals are only those which signify something whose meaning does not admit of the idea of plurality. Such are, strictly speaking, all those that comprehend by their meaning the name of the whole class, material, quality, etc., which they designate: e.g. Abstracts, Class-names, Proper-names, etc., such as *childhood*, *man-kind*, *struggling*, *ether*, *Semiramis*. But we frequently give them plurals

(i) by using abstract for concrete, e.g. *truths*, *hardships*, *humours*, *strugglings*;

(ii) by using the class-name in a more limited sense: *coals* (= separate lumps of coal, i.e. plural of "a coal," or "kinds of coal"), *brasses*, *waters*, *gases*;

(iii) by using a proper name as common, either (a) because it really is common to a [small] class, e.g. *the Simpkinsons*, *all the Jacks and Jills*, or (b) because the proper name stands in our minds for an object possessing certain qualities: e.g. "*the Hawkinses*, *the Drakes*, *the Davises*, *the Raleighs*, were the founders of the ocean empire."

(a) We often use the name of authors, painters, etc., to designate their works: half a dozen *Euclids* (i.e. books); I doubt if those are genuine *Raphaels* (pictures).

§ 110. Some nouns are not used in the singular. These include

(i) things consisting of two separate members (whence the plural suffix) always used in combination: e.g. *scissors, pincers, pliers, shears, tongs—breeches, drawers, trousers*;

(ii) nouns denoting a collection of items, frequently adjectives to which the plural suffix has been added: e.g. *annals, credentials, entrails, precincts, victuals, vitals—ethics, mathematics*, and others in *-ics*, see § 107—*environs, premises, billiards—mumps, measles*.

§ 111. Plural of Compound Nouns.

(i) Compounds (§ 120) are generally treated as if the whole combination formed one word, and hence the plural inflexion is suffixed to the last element: thus we say *mouthfuls, lord chancellors, judge-advocate-generals, will-o'-the-wisps, field-marshal, cast-aways, farewells, toothpicks, lady-helps, turnkeys*.

(ii) In compounds consisting of a noun limited by another noun joined to it by a preposition, the former is generally inflected where the force of the qualification is clearly felt: hence we say *sisters-in-law, men-of-war*; but *will-o'-the-wisps, four-in-hands, Tam-o'-Shanters*.

(iii) In a few formations on the French model, where the adjective follows the noun, the noun alone is inflected, e.g. *courts-martial, knights-errant, heirs apparent, heirs presumptive, peers spiritual* (but the last three are scarcely true compounds).

(a) No doubt such forms are only preserved by the fact that the plurals are little used; when such combinations are more popular they conform to the natural tendency of the language, e.g. *attorney-generals*, perhaps *court-martials*.

(b) In a few combinations on the same model, where the second element is a French adjective (or noun), both are sometimes inflected; but this is extremely rare, and only survives as a relic of mediæval terms of law and chivalry, e.g. *Knights Templars, Lords Justices*, perhaps *Lords Lieutenants*; but we may say *Knight-Templars, Lord-Justices, Lord-Lieutenants*; so also in nearly all modern formations, e.g. *lady-superintendents, lady-companions*; but notice *men-servants*.

(c) In loose compounds such as *lookers-on, hangers-on*, the noun is inflected; contrast *castaways*.

(ii) CASE.

§ 112. A noun in the singular may be inflected to show that the person or thing it denotes stands in the relation of possessor to some other person or thing. The noun so inflected is said to be in the Possessive case; e.g. "the *boy's* face is black" [where the form *boy's*, not *boy*, *boys*, or *boys'*, tells us that it is the face *which belongs to the boy* that is black].

(a) This inflected possessive is mainly used with the names of animate beings, its place being commonly supplied in neuters by the preposition *of* followed by the uninflected noun, which is then said to be in the objective case.

§ 113. The possessive case singular is formed by adding 's to the noun: *boy*, *boy's*.

The possessive case plural is formed

(1) by adding 's to the plural form of the noun, if that does not end in *s*; e.g. the *men's* amusements, the *children's* toys; or

(2) by simply adding the apostrophe (') to the plural form, where—as is usually the case—that ends in *s*; e.g. the *persons'* names, the *judges'* pensions.

(a) The apostrophe in the singular is only a way of distinguishing the possessive singular from the plural in writing; it is no part of inflexion. In the plural possessive, the apostrophe serves a similar purpose; cp. *boy's*, *boys*, *boys'*; hence the possessive plural (except in the case of words not forming the plural in *s*) has really no distinctive inflexion, for in such a word as *persons'* the *s* is the plural inflexion, and the apostrophe only a graphical device.

(b) Notice that after sibilants the 's makes a complete syllable: cp. *princesse*, *princess's*, *princesses*, *princesses'*—the last three are all pronounced exactly the same.

(c) After a sibilant letter or sound the apostrophe is sometimes used without inflexion for the possessive singular; e.g. *for conscience's sake*, *Thucydides' works*, *St. Francis' sacrifice*; but the tendency is to add the suffix, e.g. *St. James's Square*, *Mrs. Jones's dance*, or to avoid the construction by using the noun with the preposition *of* before it.

(d) Case inflexions were beginning to be considerably unsettled—mainly owing to Scandinavian influence—before the Conquest: during the Middle English period *-es*, which was in O.E. confined as a genitive sing. suffix to certain classes of masculine and neuter nouns, became gradually almost universal, while no distinction of case was made in the plural; the *-es* became shortened where possible to *-s* in the usual way: see § 6. The *s* in *men's*, *children's*, etc., is due to analogy with ordinary nouns which have the *s* plural, and consequently show the same letter in the possessive.

(e) Feminine nouns in O.E. had generally the genitive in *-e* or *-an*: both these were levelled as *-e* in M.E., and an *s* was frequently added, though there are instances of the *e* genitive until almost the modern period. It survives with usual disappearance of the inflexional vowel in *Lady day* (= "[Our] Lady's day"), where *Lady* stands for M.E. *Lady-e*, O.E. *hlæfdig-an*. Notice also in the names of the days of the week that we have a genitival *s* in *Tu-es-day*, *Wed-n-es-day*, *Thur-s-day* [= *Tiw's day*, *Wodin's day*, *Thor's day*—*Tiw*, *Wodin*, *Thor* are Teutonic gods], but not in the others: the first element in Sunday stands for O.E. *sunnan*, M.E. *sunne*, gen. sing. fem. = "sun's"; in Monday, for O.E. *monnan*, M.E. *monne*, gen. sing. masc. (see *h* below) = "moon's": in *Friday* for O.E. *Frige*, M.E. *Frei*, *Fri* = "Friga's day" (Friga being a Teutonic goddess); *Satur-day* is found in M.E. both as *Sater-day* and *Sateres-day*: in O.E. it is *Sæter* and *Sætern-dæg*—i.e. "day of Saturn" or Saturnus, a Roman deity.

(f) In *witenagemot* we have a genitive plural (see *h* below): it is a compound of *gemot*, "meeting," and *witena*, gen. pl. "of the wise men"; the word, however, is simply an O.E. name revived by modern historians to describe an Anglo-Saxon institution—not a genuine survival.

(g) Traces of other case endings are preserved in the pronouns (see § 130) and in some adverbs (see § 206).

* (h) The chief forms of declension in O.E. are shown in the following words:

	Masc.		Neut.		Fem.	
	"wolf"	"hunter"	"animal"	"eye"	"glove"	"sun"
Sing. N.	wulf	hunt-a	dēor	ēag-e	glōf	sunn-e
A.	wulf	hunt-an	dēor	ēag-s	glōfe	sunn-an
G.	wulf-es	hunt-an	dēor-es	ēag-an	glōfe	sunn-an
D.	wulf-e	hunt-an	dēor-e	ēag-an	glōfe	sunn-an
Plur.						
N. A.	wulf-as	hunt-an	dēor	ēag-an	glōfa	sunn-an
G.	wulf-a	hunt-ena	dēor-a	ēag-ena	glōfa	sunn-ena
D.	wulf-um	hunt-um	dēor-um	ēag-um	glōfam	sunn-um

Nouns which have plurals in *-n* are said to be of the "weak" declension: others are "strong." [Cp. the declension of Ger. *Wolf*, *Tier*, *Auge*, *Sonne*, etc.]

Nouns which show mutations (all such are strong) are declined as follows:—

	"foot," masc.		"borough," fem.	
Sing. N. A.	fōt	fēt	burg	byrig
G.	fōt-es	fōt-a	byrig	burg-a
D.	fēt	fōt-um	byrig	burg-um

§ 114. The term *case* is used of a noun or pronoun to denote certain syntactical relationships (§§ 93, 94), without regard merely to inflexion. Understanding it in this sense, we may write the full declension of an English noun or pronoun in the following way:—

Sing. Nominative	<i>boy, I</i> : e.g. the <i>boy</i> runs ; <i>I</i> run.
Objective	<i>boy, me</i> : e.g. he struck the <i>boy</i> and <i>me</i> .
Possessive	<i>boy's, my</i> : e.g. the <i>boy's</i> hat ; <i>my</i> book.
Plur. Nominative	<i>boys, we</i>
Objective	<i>boys, us</i>
Possessive	<i>boys', our</i>

(c) Sex.

§ 115. Difference of Sex may be shown in English words

(i) by combinations in which the one element (generally the first) clearly shows the sex denoted, e.g.

cock-sparrow, maid-servant, billy-goat, pea-hen.

(ii) by using pairs of words not etymologically connected, e.g.

father, mother,—cock, hen—Sir, Madam.

§ 116. Difference of Sex is also shown by the use of suffixes. The suffix commonly employed, and the only living one [a method of formation is said to be "living" when it can be used to make fresh words] is *-ess*.

(a) This *-ess* is the French *-esse* (as in *prophétesse*), pop. L. *-issa* (as in *prophetissa* from *propheta*); the Gk. cognate is *-issa*. It is added alike to words of Romance origin and to words of Teutonic origin, thus forming hybrids in the latter case.

- (i) *-ess* is simply added to the masculine in

god—goddess ; heir—heiress ; so priestess, prophetess, lioness, hostess, giantess, countess [used as fem. of *earl*], *princess, shepherdess, peeress, prioress, mayoress.*

- (ii) *-ess* is added to the masculine, and causes shortening of the masculine termination in

ambassador, ambassadress ; enchanter, enchantress ; so protectress, traitress, huntress, portress, empress ; from sorcer-ess (fem. of *sorcer-er*), *governess*, and some others the masculine ending disappears entirely.

- (b) The following words with this termination should be noticed :—

Abbess : this is from the French, contracted from the L. *abbat-issa* ; *abbot* is L. *abbat*, a Biblical word (of Syriac origin). *Abbot* is found in O.E. (through Latin of the monks, § 12), as *abbod*, and so is the longer feminine form *abbudisse*. Hence *abbess*, though the feminine of *abbot*, is not directly derived from it.

Duchess : this is the French *duchesse*, older *ducesse*, fem. of *duc* (L. *duc-em*), whence our *duke*.

Marchioness : pop. L. *marchion-issa*, from pop. L. *marchion-em*, “prefect of the *marches* or boundaries” ; hence it ought to correspond regularly to an English *marchion*, but there is no such word ; it is used as feminine of *Marquis*, O.F. *markis*, L. *marchensis*, same meaning as *marchio*. *Marquess* is another spelling of *Marquis*. [The word from which these forms are derived is Teutonic = *mark*, line, “boundary” ; so in Lord of the *March*, *mark* (coin), to *mark* and *remark*, *mark*grave (for *mark-graaf*, “count of the *mark*,”—a Dutch word), etc.].

Mistress : this represents O.F. *maistresse* (now *maitresse*), feminine of *maistre* (now *maitre*), whence our *master* ; *maistre* is L. *magistrum* (from root of *mag-n-us*). *Mister* (generally written *Mr.*) is a variant of *master*, with weakened vowel. *Missus* written *Mrs.* is a corruption of *Mistress*. *Miss* is an abbreviation of *Mistress*. Observe the way in which (1) *Master* and *Mistress*, (2) *Mr.* and *Mrs.*, (3) *Master* and *Miss* are used to correspond with one another. *Master* and *Mistress* did duty for all cases till modern times.

Songstress, sempstress have double feminine suffixes ; see § 117c.

§ 117. The Teutonic feminine suffixes *-ster* and *-en* survive in the feminine nouns *spin-ster*, *vix-en*.

(a) In O.E. there were various gender terminations. Masculines in *-a* frequently corresponded to feminines in *-e*, but these were levelled under *-e* in M.E. (§ 6); thus *hunt-a*, "hunter," became *hunt-e*, and so lost its distinctive masculine termination; to supply this the O.E. termination *-ere* (M.E. *-er*) was more freely used than in the earlier period, and is now the common agent suffix; it was the more readily accepted in the M.E. period as it was akin in sound to the French *-eur* (L. *-or*, *-or-em*), which was frequent in Romance words, and had the same force. But when *-er* came to be thus generally used as the common male suffix, words ending in *-er* were generally regarded as masculine even when this *-er* was part of the feminine suffix *-ster* (older *-estre*); the feminine was then formed by the Romance *-ess* discussed above.

(b) *Spinner* is etymologically a female *spinner*; its survival as a feminine is due to the sense ("an unmarried woman") in which it came to be used. The proper names *Baxter*, *Webster*, *Brewster*, are etymologically feminines corresponding to *Baker*, *Webber* (= "weaver"), *Brewer*. *-ster* having lost its feminine force is found as mere male agent suffix in *songs-ter*, *hacks-ter* [Dutch form = *hawk-er*, also Dutch], *deems-ter* ["one who deems," i.e. pronounces dooms or judgments, used in the Isle of Man], *tap-ster*, *mill-ster*, and with a certain familiar or depreciatory sense in *young-ster*, *game-ster*, *gun-ster*, *old-ster*, *trick-ster*.

(c) If distinctive feminine forms of such words are required, the Romance *-ess* is added: thus *songs-ter-ess*, *semp-ter-ess*, or *seam-ter-ess* [female "seam-er," i.e. sewer; for the *p* see § 68], have double feminine suffixes.

(d) *Vixen* means a "she-fox"; the termination caused mutation of the original vowel (see § 63); the masculine keeps the O.E. initial sound (*f*).

* (e) The O.E. forms were *fox*, *fyæn*; so *god*, *gyden* (goddess); cp. *Fuchs-in*, *Gött-in*, and many others in German, where this suffix is commonly used for the feminine.

§ 118. Feminine nouns terminating with feminine suffixes have been imported from various foreign languages:

(i) *L. -trix* (straight from *L.* and therefore showing the nominative termination), the feminine corresponding to the male *-tor*; these are legal terms, such as *testator*, *testatrix*; so *execu-tr-ix*, *prosecu-tr-ix*, *inheri-tr-ix* (cp. *heir-ess*), *proprie-tr-ix* (cp. *proprie-tr-ess*), *administra-tr-ix*.

(a) This suffix in French is *-ice*, e.g. *nourrice*, *L. nutr-ic-em* (acc. of *nutria*, from *nutr-ire*, "nourish"), whence our *nurse*. *Empress* in M.E. is *emperice* as well as *emperesse*; the former shows the derivation from *L. imperatricem*, fem. of *imperator*; the latter and its Modern Eng. descendant preferred the common *-ess* suffix.

(ii) *Landgravine*, *Margravine*, are Dutch forms.

(b) the suffix here is *cognate* with the *-en in viæen*, and the *-in* in Ger. *Füchs-in*, etc.

(iii) *Heroine* is the Greek ἡρώινη (*hērōinē*), fem. of ἥρως (*hērōs*), "hero."

(iv) A few feminine words retain a foreign *-a*; such have generally reached us through Italian or Spanish; e.g. *infanta* (Span.), *donna* (Ital.), *signora* (Ital.), *sultana* (through Ital. from Arabic). The corresponding masculine suffix is *-o* as in *virtuos-o*, *incognit-o*, etc. (*L. -us, -a*).

(c) *Czarina* is used as the feminine of *Czar*. This word has been borrowed from Russia, of course, but it is of Latin origin, being derived (as is Ger. *Kaiser*) from *L. Caesar*.

§ 119. Nouns which name males are said to be of the Masculine gender, females of the Feminine gender; those which name sexless objects are said to be Neuter. Hence *sex* and *gender* are synonymous as far as English is concerned.

(a) *Gender and Sex*. In some languages the termination of an adjective is varied in a way which depends upon the noun it qualifies and agrees with. Thus in Latin, for instance, we say

mal-us puer, *mal-a* puella, *mal-um* bellum
for *bad* boy, *bad* girl, *bad* war.

The nouns in such languages are classified according to the way they affect adjectives, and the three classes are said to be of different *genders*. In older English (as in German, Greek, Latin) there existed the three genders as given above, the masculine including many nouns

which were not names of males, and so forth, and the adjective qualifying a noun being inflected in accordance with the grammatical gender of the noun (see § 141); in French the genders have been reduced to two by discarding the neuter: thus *un bon garçon* or *chapeau*, *un-e bonn-e fille* or *plume*. In modern English the form of an adjective is in no way affected by the noun it qualifies, the inflexions having long disappeared after becoming levelled. Hence grammatical gender does not exist in modern English, the only genuine remnant of it existing in such pronouns as *wha-t*, *i-t* (§§ 131, 135).

(b) *Neuter* in Latin means "neither," i.e. "neither masculine nor feminine."

(c) A name which may without change of form denote a male or female, is sometimes said to be a noun of common gender, e.g. *parent*, *infant*, *baby*.

(d) *Formation of Compound Nouns.*

§ 120. A Compound is a combination of two (or more) independent words used so as to perform the function of a single word. It is treated as one word in contradistinction to a mere conjunction of its elements by giving it a single principal accent, instead of allowing each element to have its own accent; further, to the compound is usually given a specialised meaning: e.g. *fox-terrier*, *seaweed*, *blackguard*, *lifeguard*.

The following are the chief methods of forming compound nouns:—

(i) Noun qualified by an adjective: e.g. *grandfather*, *forefather*, *blackberry*, *hothouse*.

(ii) Noun qualified by a noun: e.g. *birthday*, *countryman*, *witchcraft*, *warfare*, *song-bird*: the second element is often formed from a verb, and the first represents its object, e.g. *book-seller*, *boot-making*, *playwright*.

(iii) Noun governed by a preceding verb: e.g. *spendthrift*, *kill-joy*, *dare-devil*, *turnkey*.

(iv) Other methods, whose employment is obvious from the examples, are seen in *inside*, *by-play*, *godsend*, *farewell*, *stand-by*, *passer-by*, *over-all*, *he-goat*, *self-love*, *good-for-nothing*, *ne'er-do-well*, *son-in-law*.

§ 121. A number of suffixes of derivation ought strictly speaking to be treated here, but it is more convenient to deal with them under derivation: see *-dom*, *-hood*, etc., in § 124.

(a) *-man* appears as a mere agent suffix (like *-er*, § 126a), in several words: e.g. *seaman*, *fireman*, *horsesman*, *bellman*, *hangman*, *waterman*. In several words a quasi-genitival *s* appears after the first element: e.g. *tradesman*, *salesman*, *statesman*, *kinsman*, etc. It is added to a word which already has the suffix *-er* in *fisherman*. In *alderman* the first element is O.E. *ealdor*, "elder," "chief."

(b) *-wife* (= "woman") is similarly used for the feminine in *housewife*, *fishwife*, etc.

(c) *-wright* ("worker") appears in *playwright*, *wheelwright*, *shipwright*. In *Wainwright* the first syllable is a doublet of *wagon*.

* [*wright* = M.E. *wrighte*, formed by metathesis (§ 65) from O.E. *wyrht-a* from *wyrc-an*, to work, verb derived by mutation from *weorc*, work.]

(d) *-craft* ("skill") appears in *witchcraft*, *priestcraft*, *handicraft*; the last word stands for *hand-craft* with an intrusive *i*, due to association with *handiwork*. *Handiwork* rightly has this *i*, for it represents M.E. *hand-iwere* and O.E. *hand-geweore*, *geweore* being almost equivalent in meaning to *weore*, from which it is formed with the collective prefix *ge-*.

(e) In *warfare* the second syllable is the same as our noun *fare*, meaning originally a "journeying," and so a "carrying-on," "comportment": we have it in *thorough-fare*, "passage thorough or through" [*through* is merely a shorter form of *thorough*]; *well-fare*, "successful deportment" [cp. *fare well* = "may you fare (subj.) well"]; *chaffer* = *chap-fare*, where *chap* means "bargain" [O.E. *cēap*], as in *chapman* (and the familiar abbreviation of it, *chap*).

(f) *-kind* in *mankind*, etc., is the same as the word *kin* (O.E. *mann-cynn*), but it owes its added *d* to the influence of the word *kind* ("sort"—as in "this kind of thing," etc.), with which it is etymologically closely connected.

* [The substantive *kind* is the O.E. *cynd* derived from *cynn*, and means in the first place "nature," "inborn disposition," as in the phrase "after his kind": the adjective *kind* similarly means originally "natural," the present meaning "loving" being a later development.]

(g) *-herd* (a herd, i.e. "keeper"), appears in *cowherd*, *swineherd*, *goatherd*, *shepherd* [i.e. *sheep-herd*], etc. (*Potsherd* does not contain this suffix; it is not *pots-herd* but *pot-sherd* or *pot-shard*: the second syllable means a "fragment," "cutting," from the verb *shear*, O.E. *sceran*, pret. *scear*, with which are connected *shire*, *score*, etc.)

* [The words *herd*, "flock," and *herd*, "keeper," were distinguished in O.E.; the former was *heord*, the latter was *hierde*, derived from it. By the decay of the suffix, the two have become identical.]

(h) *-monger* ("dealer," from a word *mong*, meaning "mixture" —as in *among*), appears in *ironmonger*, *cheesemonger*, *costermonger* [where *coster* is for *costard*, a kind of apple], and others.

§ 122. Disguised Compounds.—Many compounds do not reveal the force and form of their elements at first sight, the obscurity arising (i) from the operation of the various phonetic laws, and (ii) from the influence exercised over the forms of words by more familiar ones which resemble them without necessarily having any etymological connection with them [Analogy]. Thus (i) *gossip* stands for *god* + *sib*, "related in God," as shown above (§ 70): *nickname* stands for "an eke name" (see § 68), i.e. a name given *eke*, or in addition: (ii) *cray-fish* is not really a compound at all, and has nothing to do with *fish* save by the influence of analogy of form and meaning: it stands for Old French *crevisse* (now *écrevisse*), a Teutonic word, etymologically connected with *crab*.

(a) Among interesting compounds are the following:—

Barn, M.E. *berne*, O.E. *ber-ern*, in which *ber* means "barley," and *ern* "place," "receptacle." *Barley* = *ber* + *lēac*, "leek," "plant": its O.E. form is *bærlic*: *garlic* (which has retained the final guttural) has the same second syllable: the first, O.E. *gār*, means "spear," so that *garlic* = "spear-leek."

Constable, O.F. *conestable* (now *connétable*) is the L. *comes stabuli*, "count of the stable" [*Count* is F. *comte* from L. *com-it-em* (acc. of *comes*), "companion" from *cum*, "with" + stem of *it-um*, sup. *ire*, "go." *Stable*, L. *stabulum*, "stall," is from root of *stare*, "stand"].

Drake stands for *end-rake* (cp. § 67), where *end* is an old word meaning *duck* (O.E. *ened*: cp. Ger. *Ente*), and *rake* (allied to *-ric* and *rich*, § 125d) means "male," "lord." Thus *drake* is really equivalent

to "duck-male": for the mode of formation compare *pea-cock* (in which *pea* is derived from *L. pavo*).

Gospel stands for O.E. *gōd + spel*, i.e. the "good spell" or story: a translation of *L. evangelium*, i.e. *εὐαγγέλιον*. But the vowel was probably shortened because the word was taken to be *god + spell*, i.e. the story of God (i.e. Christ).

Husband is a word of Scandinavian formation meaning "house-master": the first element is cognate with *house*, the second (O. Norse *viand*) is in origin a present participle meaning "one who dwells" [cognate with *boor*, properly "dweller," "tiller" (Ger. *Bauer*), -*bour* in *neighbour*, below]. *Hussy* is shortened for *house-wife* (O.E. *hūs + wif*, whence *huswif* pron. *hussif* (cp. *Greenwich*) and so *hussy*).

Kerchief is older *cover + chef* where *chef* is French and means "head" (*L. caput*: the substantive *chief* is the same word): *cover*, *F. couvrir* (now *couvrir*) is *L. co-operire*.

Lord, Lady, Lammas have as first element the old form of *loaf* (O.E. *hlāf*, § 67d): *lord* is O.E. *hlāford* for *hlāf-weard*, "loaf-ward," the bread guarder: *lady* is O.E. *hlāf-dige*, where the second element possibly means "kneader" and is connected with *dough*: *lammas* (August 1st) is O.E. *hlāf-mæsse*, i.e. "loaf-mass," harvest-mass.

Neighbour is "one who dwells near," the elements being O.E. *nēah*, "nigh" + *būr*, "tiller," "dweller": see *boor* (under *husband*) above.

Nightingale, lit. "night-singer," has an intrusive *n*: the elements are O.E. *nih*te, "night" (gen. case), and *gala*, "singer" (same root as *yell*)—cp. Ger. *Nachtigall*.

Nostril is a compound of *nose* (O.E. *nosu*): the second syllable is etymologically closely connected with *thrill*, *thirl* (metathesis, § 65), and means "hole": from O.E. *purh*, "through"; *drill* is a Dutch cognate.

Orchard is literally *ort-yard*, *ort* or *wyrt* meaning "root" (with which word it is etymologically connected). *Wort* survives in various plant names: *cole-wort*, etc.

Somersault is O.F. *soubre-sault*, where the *soubre* = *L. supra*, and the other element is *L. saltus*, "a leap," from *sal-ire*, "leap."

Steward is O.E. *sti-weard*, i.e. *ward* or keeper of the *sties*"; similarly **Marshal** originally meant "horse-servant" [from French, which got it, however, from old High German: the first syllable means "horse," and is cognate with *mare*: the second is in Mod. Ger. *Schalk* (rogue), and meant originally "servant"].

Stirrup is in O.E. *stig-rāp* = "climbing-rope."

Walnut means "foreign nut," the first syllable being O.E. *wealh*, "foreign" (whence *Wales*, *Welsh*, *Corn-wall*: the Anglo-Saxons called the British "foreigners"). In *walrus* the first syllable is of totally different origin, being (the Scandinavian form of) the word *whale*: the second syllable is the Scandinavian form of the word *horse*, so that *walrus* = "whale-horse" [O.E. *hors*, O.N. *hros*, metathesis forms; Ger. *Ross* with *h* dropped before *r*: § 67].

Wassail is originally a salutation = "be thou of good cheer": O.E. *wes* imperative of verb "to be" (cp. Ger. *ge-wes-en*, and see § 176b) + *hāl*, "*hale*" [*hale* is a Northern doublet of *whole*, in which the *w* is a misspelling: it is properly absent in other words from the same source—*health*, *hail*, *holy*, *heal*, etc.].

(b) A few more words to which as to *cray-fish* mistaken etymology has given a false shape are here noticed:—

Ember-days: the first element is O.E. *ymbryne*, "circuit" (*ymb*, "around": cognate with Ger. *um* and L. *ambi*: *ryne*, "run").

Frontispiece is not a compound of *piece*; see § 41b.

Goodbye is a corruption of "*God be with you*."

Mandrake is a corruption of *mandragora* (Gk.), the name of a plant.

Pickaxe is a corruption of M.E. *picois*, and owes its form to popular etymology attempting to connect it with *axe*.

Wormwood is a compound of O.E. *werian*, "protect," "cover" (whence *wear*) and *mōd*, "mind," "mood": thus the original meaning is "mind-guard."

FORMATION OF NOUNS WITH SUFFIXES.

(a) *The Native Element.*

§ 123. **Primitive Words.**—A number of monosyllabic substantives have no trace of derivational suffix or prefix, and appear to be simple roots in a modern English form (but see § 59), e.g. *cow*, *foot*, *foe*. Others again, though plainly not of this number, appear with obscure elements whose force and form cannot be precisely determined, e.g. *mother*, *water*, *child*.

§ 124. In many nouns formative suffixes appear which have existed as independent words, but have lost their full force in composition: the chief of these appear in

king-dom, man-hood, friend-ship.

(a) These differ in degree, not in kind, from the last element of such compounds as *witchcraft, Goodman, shipwright*, etc. [§ 121]; they are distinguished from them only in having more completely lost their full independent meaning when used in forming nouns.

(b) *-dom* [the same word as *doom* from the verb *do*] forms abstract nouns denoting primarily "power," "jurisdiction," and so "condition"; many abstracts thus formed have acquired a concrete meaning. Many are hybrids.

Examples of the use of this suffix are—

(i) from nouns: *kingdom, earldom*; hybrids: *princedom, dukedom, popedom, christendom*.

(ii) from adjectives: *freedom, wisdom* [= wise-dom].

The suffix is still living, though rarely used in fresh formations except of a half-humorous kind: *tinkerdome, boredom*.

Thraldom and some others are of Scandinavian origin; so *hali-dame* [= holi-dom].

Seldom does not belong here being *seld-om* (dat. pl.), see § 206*d*; nor does *random*, which represents an O.F. *randon*, "force," "swiftness," and so "haste."

* The O.E. form is *dēm* (the long vowel is preserved in *doom*) as in *wis-dēm*: Ger. cognate is *-tum* as in *Königtum*.

(c) *-hood* forms abstracts denoting state, condition—

(i) from nouns: *manhood, childhood, brotherhood, sisterhood, neighbourhood, knighthood, widowhood*; and rarely

(ii) from adjectives: *likelihood, falsehood*. The last named is a hybrid [L. *fals-us*], so is *priest-hood*.

It appears as *-head* in *Godhead* (i.e. God-hood).

[This suffix does not appear in *liveliness*, which, however, owes its form to analogy with it; the older form is *live-lode*, i.e. *life-lode*, "life-leading," *-lode* being the same as the substantive *lode* (of metal in a mine), and of the same origin as the vb. *lead*. M.E. *liveclode*, *liflode*, O.E. *lif-lād*.]

* The O.E. form is *hād* as in *cildhād*, which appears in M.E. *-hood* (and *-hede*); the Ger. cognate is *-heit* as in *Kindheit, Freiheit*.

(d) -ship forms abstracts denoting "*shape*," state, condition; many thus formed have acquired a concrete meaning. Examples of its use are—

(i) from nouns: *friendship*, *lordship*, *ladyship*, *horsemanship*, *worship* [= *worth-ship*].

(ii) from an adjective, *hardship*.

Many are hybrids (the suffix can still be used in fresh formations), as *membership* [L. *membr-um*], *mastership*, *clerkship*, *scholarship*, *fellowship*, etc. The second syllable in *landscape* or *landskip*, *seascape*, is the Dutch form of the same suffix.

* The O.E. form is *-scipe*, from same source as the "weak present" verb *scieppan*, to shape, whence our verb *shape*; the sb. *ship* is of the same origin. Examples of its use in O.E. are *frēondscipe*, *weorþscipe*; the Ger. cognate is *-schaft* [from *schaffen*, "*shape*"], as in *Freundschaft*, *Landschaft*.

§ 125. Rarer suffixes of the same class (i.e. known to have been once independent words) appear in

wed-lock, *know-ledge*, *hat-red*, *bishop-ric*,
and in the numerals *hund-red*, *four-teen*, *for-ty*.

(a) In *wed-lock* the first element means "pledge"; "*loek*" originally meant "sport," "game," and "gift." *Know-ledge* exhibits the Scandinavian form of the same suffix.

* The O.E. form is *lāc*; its O. Norse cognate *-leik-r* is more freely used.

(b) -red, abstract noun suffix denoting "condition" [the meaning of the O.E. word *ræden*] is found in *hatred* (from *hate*) and *kindred* (which stands for *kin-red*, § 68).

(c) For -red (= reckoning) in *hund-red*, and -tēn, -ty (= *ten*) in *four-teen*, *for-ty*, etc., see under Numerals, § 147.

(d) -ric in *bishop-ric* signifies "dominion," "rule"; cp. -rake in *d-rake*, which is closely connected with this suffix; see § 122a. *Bishop-ric* is a hybrid [§ 24].

* The O.E. form is *-rice*; the Ger. cognate is *Reich* (kingdom), used as suffix in *Königreich*, etc.; the cognate in Latin is *reg-* (as seen in *reg-ere*, *reg-em*, *reg-num*, etc.). The adjective *rich* (primitive meaning "powerful") is practically the same word as *rice* (cp. Ger. adj. *reich*) above; its appearance in French is due to its having been borrowed from the Teutons.

§ 126. Many suffixes seen in the formation of nouns cannot be shown to have had independent existences. The chief of these appear in the words

<i>play-er</i> ,	"one who plays,"	<i>agent</i> suffix.
<i>shov-el</i> ,	"thing to shove with,"	<i>instrumental</i> suffix.
<i>warm-th</i> ,	"state of being warm"	} <i>abstract</i> noun suffixes.
<i>good-ness</i> ,	"quality of being good"	
<i>learn-ing</i> ,	verb-noun = "to learn"	

and in the words (originally all *diminutives*)

bullo-ck, *kern-el*, *chick-en*, *farth-ing*, *duck-l-ing*, *lamb-kin*,
and in the *feminine* words
spin-ster, *vix-en*.

(a) *-er* (denoting primarily male agent) may be added to almost any verb (or noun regarded as verb): e.g. *baker* (one who *bakes*), *gardener*, *learner*, *lover*, *rider*, *singer*, *teacher*, *hunter*. In such a word as *cottag-er* it is used loosely to signify "one connected with" (especially by habitation): so in *London-er*, *villag-er*.

It is freely used in names of instruments regarded primarily as agents: *pointer*, *sharpen-er*, *draw-er*. It is spelt (but not pronounced) slightly differently in *begg-ar*, *li-ar*.

It has been a living suffix throughout the whole language, and hence is freely used with foreign stems—e.g. *paint-er*, *point-er*, and is even added to Greek formations as in *photograph-er*, *biograph-er*, where the Gk. *-ist* [§ 128a] would seem more appropriate.

Many words in *-er* are now used for feminine as well as masculine—e.g. *teacher*, *dancer*; it forms a masculine, however, from a feminine in *widow-er* [§ 117a]. The feminine suffix properly corresponding to it is *-ster* as in *spin-ster*, but this is also now commonly found as a male agent suffix [§ 117b].

The Romance suffix *-eur* [Lat. *-or*] has frequently given way to this form, or become identical with it, owing to its prevalence and similarity of pronunciation and force: it is frequently impossible to distinguish between the *-er* native and *-er* from French *-eur*. On the other hand, the native suffix is sometimes spelt as if it were of Latin origin, as *sailor* (really *sail-er*): this is due to influence of *-or* words from Latin, such as *author* (L. *auctor-em*): hence such parallel forms as *sailor* and *sail-er*.

* The O.E. form is *-ere*, as in *leornere*; the Ger. cognate is *-er*, as in *Reiter*.

(b) *-el* (more frequently spelt *-le*) forms a class of words originally denoting instruments, very rarely agents: most of these are from verbal roots. Examples are *bund-le* (vb. *bind*), *cripp-le* (*creep*), *gird-le* (*gird*), *sadd-le* and *sett-le* (*sat*), *shov-el* (*shove*), *shutt-le* (*shoot*), *spind-le* (for *spin-el*, see § 68, from *spin*); *steep-le* is from adj. *steep*: *stap-le* (a clamp) from O.E. *stap-an*, "*step*": *stile* has this suffix in a contracted form, standing for *stig-el* from *stig-an*, to "*stie*," "*climb*" see *stirrup*, § 122a.

* Like *stile*, several others with this suffix have dropped a medial guttural and contracted [§ 67]: e.g. *fowl* (O.E. *fugol*: cp. Ger. *Vogel*), *hail* (cp. Ger. *Hagel*), *sail* (cp. Ger. *Segel*), *tail* (cp. Ger. *Segel*).

-el has a diminutive force in *hov-el* (a little house, O.E. *hof*, as in Ger.), *hern-el* (from *corn*, with mutation, § 63), *bram-b-le* (from *broom*, older *brom*, with excrescent *b*: § 68), *thim-b-le* (from *thumb*), and perhaps in some mentioned above. Similarly it appears in *axle*, *pimple*, *spangle*, *sparkle*, *paddle* (for *spaddle*, from *spade*). It appears after the suffix *-er* in *cock-er-el*, *pik-er-el* (*pike*), *mong-r-el* (where "*mong*" as in *a-mong*, *mong-er*, etc. = mixture).

In *burial* (vb. *bury*), *ridd-le* (*read*, *rede* = "explain"), *shutt-le*, and perhaps some others, the original English suffix was *-els*; the *-s* sometimes appears in Middle English, but has finally been discarded, owing to its being taken for the sign of the plural [§ 106a].

In *brid-al* the final syllable has nothing to do with this suffix: the word is a compound equivalent to *bride* + *ale* = "bride feast."

* The O.E. form is *-el* (often spelt *-l*, *-ol*), and in *burial*, etc., *-els*; the Ger. cognate is *-el*, as in *Deck-el* (vb. *deck-en*).

(c) *-ness*, a living suffix, is used very freely to form abstracts (which have sometimes acquired a concrete meaning) from adjectives: *goodness*, *badness*, *redness*, *blackness*, *whiteness*, *runningness*, *gladness*, *madness*, *likeness*; *witness*, *wilderness*: it is freely added to Romance adjectives, especially such as are monosyllabic (and therefore not of obviously foreign appearance), e.g. *rudeness*, *falseness*, *fierceness*, *baseness*, etc.; the corresponding Romance termination is *-ity* [§ 127h], and hence we find *gentleness* and *gentility*, *scarceness* and *scarcity*; *activeness* and *activity*; *stupidness* and *stupidity*, etc. Where there is no difference of meaning in such pairs, the Romance termination is considered preferable as avoiding a hybrid.

* The O.E. form is *-nis* as in *gelicnis*: the Ger. cognate is *-nis*, e.g. *Gleichnis*.

(d) *-th, -t, -d* are found (i) in nouns which are derived from verbs and denote the result of the action of the verb (much like a neuter passive participle in Latin), and (ii) in abstracts formed from adjectives. The suffix is practically identical in origin with the *-d* of the passive participle of weak verbs. Examples

(i) from verbs. *th*: *bir-th* (vb. *bear*), *ear-th* (vb. *ear*, "to till"), *grow-th*, *steal-th*, *till-th* (vb. *till*), *tro-th* (vb. *throw*): it becomes *t* generally in combinations where *th* is difficult to pronounce, i.e. after *f, gh* (originally guttural), *s*, as in *shrif-t* (*shrive*), *drif-t* (*drive*), *rif-t* (*rice*), *shaf-t* (*shape*), *though-t* (root of *think*: cp. past part.), *draf-t* or *draugh-t* (*draw*, older *drag-an*), *weigh-t*, *fros-t* (cp. *froz-en*), *fligh-t* (*fly*, older *fleog-an*), *sigh-t* (*see*, older *seh-an*): it appears as *d* in *dec-d* (root of *do*), *glede* (a glowing coal), *see-d* (*sow*), *floo-d* (*flow*), *bran-d* (*burn*), *mead* (*mow*).

(ii) from adjectives. (a) *th*: *warm-th*, *slo-th* (*slow*), *tru-th*; it causes the vowel to be shortened in *dear-th* (*dear*), *dep-th* (*deep*), *wid-th* (*wide*); and to be mutated—for the full form of the suffix was anciently *-ith*—in *bread-th* (*broad*, O.E. *brād*), *fil-th* (*foul*, O.E. *fūl*), *health* (*whole*, O.E. *hāl*), *leng-th* (*long*), *streng-th* (*strong*), *mirth* (*merry*). (b) It is *t* in cases where *th* is difficult to pronounce (as above), *height* (*high*: Miltonic *highth* may often be heard from the uneducated), *drought* (*dry*: O.E. *druge*; or rather from the verb *drugian*, to dry).

* The O.E. originals are *-ap, -up, iþ* (*þ*), *d* (all closely connected), as in *treowð* (*truth*), *drugap* (*drought*), *dæd* (*deed*), etc.: the Ger. cognates appear as *-t -d*, e.g. *Schrif-t* (*schreib-en*), *Bran-d* (*brenn-en*), *Tha-t* (*thun*). The L. cognate is the *-t* of passive participles, as in *stra-t-us* (*sterno*), whence our *street* (*via strata*, § 23a).

(e) *-ing* used to form nouns from verbs may be added to any verb, being treated now as a regular inflexion in forming verbal nouns [see § 98 (iii)], e.g. *hunting*, *electioneering*, *jerrymandering*.

* The O.E. form is *-ung* (later *-ing*) as in the noun, *leorn-ung*, *leorn-ing*: the Ger. cognate is *-ung* similarly used, e.g. *Beschreibung*.

(f) *-ing* as a diminutive appears in *farth-ing* (i.e. *fourth-ing*) and in *Rid-ing* (Yorkshire), where it stands for *thrid-ing*, i.e. *third-ing*, a Scandinavian word. It is traced also in *shill-ing*, *herr-ing*, *penn-y* (for *penn-ing*), *whit-ing*, and in the now obsolete words *sweet-ing* (preserved as a proper name), *lord-ing*, *hild-ing*. It was used freely in O.E. to form patronymics = "son of" (much like *-son*, which generally supplanted it owing to Scandinavian influence): hence proper names in *-ing*, such as *Brown-ing*, *Will-ing*, and place-names such as

Bark-ing, Dork-ing [i.e. places where lived the *Dorkings* or *Barkings*, children of *Dark, Bark*]. *King* is contracted from *kin-ing*, where *kin* (O.E. *cyn*) = "race," "tribe," "nation": similarly *ethel-ing*, "prince," is son of an "ethel" or noble [O.E. *æþele*, "noble" (cognate Ger. *edel*) appears in many O.E. names: *Ethel-bert*, *Ethel-red*, etc.].

(g) *-ling* is a double diminutive suffix formed of *-l* [*-el*, (*b*) above] + *-ing* [(*f*) above], and has generally supplanted the simple *-ing*. It is seen in *duck-ling* (a little *duck*), *darling* (*dear*), *gosling* (*goose*), *cod-ling*, *seedling*, *stripling*, *youngling*, *starling* (older *star*, like Ger. *Staar*, meant the same bird); so *nestling* (a little thing belonging to, fit for, a *nest*), *nursling*, *yearling*, *founlding*, *suckling*, *sapling*, etc.: with notion of contempt common to diminutives in *lordling*, *ground-ling*, *changeling*, *hiveling*, *shaveling*, *fopling*, etc.

Sterling stands for *easterling* or *esterling* ("little eastern person"), the name given in the thirteenth century to the merchants from the east [Flemings, Hanse-towns' men] who traded with England.

* The O.E. diminutives are *-ing* and *-ling*: the Ger. cognate *-el*, *-l* is freely used in the double suffix *-lein*, as in *Kind-lein*, *Jung-lein*.

(h) *-kin* forms a few diminutives in native words: e.g. *lamb-kin*, *pip-kin* (pipe), *gris-kin* (*gris*, a pig). It was more largely used in Dutch, and the following words (and some others) appear to have come thence into English:—*cana-kin* (*can*), *cat-kin* (flower name, but properly = *kitt-en*), *firkin* (from Dutch form of *four*), *mannikin* (*man*).

It appears in proper names such as *Malkin* (= little *Maud*), *Gri-malkin* (grey *malkin*, a cat), *Peterkin* and the shorter form *Perkin*, *Simphkin* (little *Sim*, i.e. *Simeon*, with intrusive *p*: cp. *Simpson*), *Tomkin*, *Watkin* (*Wat* abbreviation of *Walter*: cp. *Watson*), etc.

Bodkin is a Celtic word, but possibly owes the shape of its last syllable to the influence of the use of this suffix.

Welkin does not contain this suffix: it is from the plural of the O.E. *wolcen*, "cloud," where *e* [i.e. *k*] is part of the root: cp. Ger. *Wolke*.

* It is a compound suffix rarely found in O.E.: the German cognate is *-chen*, freely used as in *Mädchen* (Maid), *Liebschen* (Lieb), etc.

* The *k* is probably the same as that in *bullock*, the other element in the suffix may be identical with the *-en* below (*j*).

(i) *-ock* is found in the diminutives *bull-ock*, *hill-ock*, *humm-ock* (a little *hump*).

* The suffix of diminution appears to be originally *-c* (i.e. *-h*) rather than *-oc(k)*, which has perhaps been used through the influence of the form *bullock*; it is only found in O.E. in this one word *bullu-c* and in *stȝr-ic* (a "*stirk*," kind of bull), from *stȝor*, a "*steen*," unless *lawrock* or *lark*, O.E. *lawrece* (Ger. *Lerche*), belongs here, which is doubtful.

(*f*) *-en* is an old diminutive suffix in *maid-en*, *chick-en* (dim. of *cocċ*).

Kitt-en is the M.E. *kit-oun*, where the suffix is French (§ 127*u*); possibly its present form and spelling are due to the influence of the suffix *-en*.

Mitten is the M.E. *mitaine*, from O.F. *mitaine* (whose origin is doubtful, some considering it Teut., others Celtic). Hence it does not exhibit this suffix.

* The O.E. suffix is seen in *māden* (for *mægden* for *mægð-en*, from *maegð*, "maid"): words with this suffix were neuter.

(*k*) *-en* as feminine suffix, see *vix-en*, § 117*d*, *e*.

(b) Foreign Element.

§ 127. Our vocabulary contains nouns showing a very large variety of Romance suffixes. The chief of these appear in the following:—

(Personal) *Secret-ary*, *carpent-er*, *prem-ier*, *chancell-or*; *jur-or*, *sav-iour*; *histor-ian*, *capt-ain*; *advoc-ate*, *jur-y*; *burg-ess*; and the feminines *heir-ess*, *execu-trix*; *cow-ard*:

(Abstract Nouns) *ignor-ance*, *prud-ence*; *serv-ice*, *just-ice*; *servi-tude*; *stupid-ity*; *boun-ty*; *hon-our*; *juggler-y*; *perfid-y*, *calumn-y*; *founda-tion*, *pass-ion*, *pois-on*; *marriage*, *peer-age*, *nat-ure*, *agricult-ure*; *reprim-and*; *divid-end*; *crus-ade*, *jeremi-ad*:

(instruments, means, places devoted to special uses, etc.), *spect-acle*, *or-acle*; *dormit-ory*, *lavat-ory*, *part-our*; *volu-me*, *char-m*, *regi-men*, *instru-ment*:

(augmentative, frequentative), *popul-ace*, *terr-ace*; *colonn-ade*; *ball-oon*, *cann-on*:

(diminutive) *dam-sel*; *ang-le*, *glob-ule*, *parti-cle*, *cup-ola*; *riv-ulet*, *gaunt-let*; *chari-ot*.

(a) The Latin *-arius* (*-arium*), *-aris* become (i) F. *aire*, and Eng. *-ary*, e.g., L.L. *secret-arius* (from *secret-us*), F. *secrét-aire*, Eng. *secretary*; so *granarium* gives *granary*; it exists in many adjectives—*necessary*, *ordinary*, etc. (ii) French *-er*, *-ier*, and English *-ar*, *-or*, *-ier*, *-eer*, etc.; e.g. L. *primarius*, F. *premier*, Eng. *premier*; L.L. *carpentarius*, F. *charpentier*, Eng. *carpenter*; so *scholar* (*scholaris*), *engineer*, *grenadier*; the termination becomes a regular agent suffix. In adjectives we find *-ar* rather frequently, as in *secular*, *peculiar*.

Squire has this suffix much disguised by contraction; L. *scutarius*, from *soutum*, "shield." This termination is adjectival rather than substantival in Latin.

(b) The Latin *-or* (*-oris*) becomes *-eur* in French, and should pass into *-er* in Eng.; an example is perhaps *visiter* (generally, however, spelt *visitor*): as a rule, however (owing to knowledge of Latin and ignorance of etymology), these words are spelt in English with *-or*; examples are *actor*, *pastor*, *tailor* (F. *tailleur*, to cut). *Saviour*, F. *sauveur*, L. *salvator*.

In many words in *-er* it is difficult to distinguish between the Eng. *-er* and the result of the French *-eur*, *-er*, *-ier*. Thus *chancellor* belongs not to this group but to (a) above, being the mediæval Latin *cancellarius* (F. *chancelier*). [*Cancellarius* is from *cancellus* (whence our *chancel*), a "grating" or "screen"; the *cancellarius* was "an officer who stood near the screen before the judgment seat."]

(c) The L. *-or* (*-oris*) in abstract nouns is usually spelt *-our* in English as in *honour* (F. *honneur*, L. *honorem*), *labour*, etc. [The American spelling in *-or* is meant to represent the sound more clearly.]

(d) The L. *-anus* (adjective suffix by origin), appears in various English nouns and adjectives as *-an*, *-ane*, *-ain*, etc. Thus *Roman* (L. *Rom-anus*), *pag-an* (L. *pag-anus*), *human* and *humane* (L. *humanus*), *Christian* (L. *Christianus*), *certain*, etc. *Ancient* is in F. *ancien* (for the excrescent *t* in English cp. § 84), which is the L. *ante* "before" + this suffix. *Dean* (F. *doyen*) is L. *decanus*, from *dec-em*, "ten." The usual French form of the suffix is *-ain*, in which shape we have it in *chaplain* (from *chapel*), *captain* (*caput*), *certain*, etc.

(e) The L. *-atus*, *-atum* (pass. part. suffix) appears in many nouns and adjectives (and verbs § 194a). Most of these are easily understood, e.g. *advocate*, *episcopate*, *consulate*, *legate*, *curate*, *disconsolate*, etc., where the suffix is fully preserved. In French words of

popular formation this *-atus* becomes *é* (as e.g., *aimé*, pp. of *aimer*—*amatus*), and in English derivatives appears generally as *y*; *jury* (L. *juratus*), *duchy* (L. *ducatus*), *Amy*, F. *Aimée*, L. *Ama-ta*.

Notice that *enemy* does not belong here; F. *ennemi*, L. *inimicus*, i.e., *in*—“not” + *amicus*, “friend.”

This L. *-atus*, *-ata*, gave rise in Spanish to *-ada* as in *armada* (L. *armata*), and from Spanish, Provençal, etc., it passed into French in the form *-ade* of frequent occurrence; thus *arcade*, *balustrade*, *crusade* (F. *croisade*, from *croix*, from *crucem*, “cross”), *grenade*, *cavalcade*, etc.

(f) *-ensis* (adjectival ending in Latin in such names as *Carthagini-ensis*, etc.) is represented in English in *burg-ess*, *Portugu-ess*, *marqu-ess*.

(g) for *-ess*, *-trix* (as in *heiress*, *testatrix*), see §§ 116, 118.

(h) The L. abstracts *-antiam*, *-entiam*, are easily recognised in derivatives such as *ignorance*, *prudence*; the longer form *-ency* appears in *transparency*, etc. *Silence* is L. *silentium*.

(i) *-ice* is L. *-itia*, *-itium* as in *justice*, *service*; the French form of this is *-esse*, as in *noblesse*, *richesse* (whence *riches*, § 108a).

(j) *-tude* is L. *-tudo*, *-tudinem*, only in “learned” derivatives—*beatitude*, *gratitude*.

(k) *-ty*, *-ity* represent F. *-té*, *-ité*, L. *-itas*, *-itatem*: thus *city* is F. *cité*, L. *civitatem*: *charity*, F. *charité*, from L. *caritatem* (from *carus*, “dear”); *bounty*, F. *bonté*, L. *bonitatem*. So in *verity*, *stupidity*, *facility* and *faculty* (doublets), *avidity*, etc.

(l) *-y* often represents a F. *-ie*, L. *-ia* abstract or collective noun ending, e.g. *industry*, F. *industrie*, L. *industria*.

(m) *-io*, *-ionem* (often in combination *-tio*, *-sio*) is very common in English and French. It appears as *-tion*, *-sion* in many words whose etymology is at once obvious: *invention*, *aspersion*, *combination*, *inflection*; it is less like its original in *poison* (L. *potio-em*, “draught”), *fashion* (L. *factionem*, from *fact-um*; a doublet is *faction*), etc.

(n) *-age* is a French form of pop. L. *-aticum*, as in *voyage* (L. *viaticum*, from *via*, “way”), *savage* (*silvaticum*, from *silva*, “wood”), *courage* (from L. *cor*, “heart”); it was used as a living suffix in English, and hence forms hybrids, such as *bond-age*.

(o) *-(t)ure*, as in *nature*, is simply L. *-(t)ura*: so in *overture*, *aperture*, etc.

(p) *-and*, *-end* are from L. gerundival stems (*-and* being always through the French form). *Vi-and(s)*, F. *viande*, L. *vivenda*, from *viv-ere*, “live”; *legend*, L. *legenda*, from *legere*, “read.”

(q) *L. -ulus* (*-ula, -ulum*) appears in *people* (F. *peuple*, L. *populus*), *table* (*tabula*), *angle* (L. *angulus*), etc.: also in *chapter*, F. *chapitre*, L. *capitulum*. It keeps near its original in "learned" formations such as *globule* and *cellule* (where it has diminutive force), *calculus*, etc. It appears as a compound suffix in many instrumental and diminutive formations: e.g. *specta-c-le* (L. *spectaculum*), *oracle* (L. *oraculum*), *particle*, etc. *Damsel* (M.E. *damosel*, from F. *demoiselle*, fem. of *demoisel*, "youth") represents L.L. *domicell-a* for *dominicella*, fem. diminutive of *dominus*, "lord." *Cupola* has L. *-ula* in an Italian form—a diminutive of *cupa*, "cup."

(r) *L. -orium* appears plainly in learned formations such as *refectory*, and others given above. *Parlour* stands for *parlat-orium*, lit. "a place to talk in," from pop. L. *parlare* (F. *parler*), from *parabolare*, "talk" [Gk. *παράβολή*, "parable," "word"].

(s) *L. -men* as in *regimen* (from *regere*, "rule") appears in shortened form in *charm*, F. *charme*, L. *car-men* (from root of *cano*); *volume* = L. *volumen* (from *volvere*, "roll"). In *regi-men-t*, *entertain-men-t*, and other words containing this common suffix—some hybrids, e.g. *bewilderment*—we have the compound suffix *-men-tum*: thus *moment* and *movement* are doublets (L. *movēre*, "move").

(f) *-ace* is found in words which have passed through Italian, where it has an augmentative but generally depreciatory force: e.g. *populace* (L. *populus*, "people"). It appears in *terrace* (L. *terra*, "earth"). [*Palace* is merely L. *palatium*. *Place* is L. *platea*, "broad walk," from Gk. *πλατὺς*, "broad."] *Space* is L. *spatium*.]

(u) *-on, -oon* have augmentative force in the languages derived from Latin. Eng. *cannon*, from F. *canon*, is L. *canna*, "reed" [from Gk. *κάννη*: but Eng. *canon*, though from the same source, is the Gk. *κανὼν*, "rod," "ruler," and therefore does not contain this suffix]: so *balloon* = "a big *ball*" (F. *ballon*). Other examples (Spanish, etc.) are seen in *doublloon*, *quadroon* (Ital.), *lagoon*, "a big lake" (from L. *lacus*).

(v) The French diminutive *-ette* appears as *et* in *lancet* ("a little lance"), *hatchet* (F. *hache*, "axe"), *banner-et*, *lever-et* (F. *livre*, "hare," L. *lepor-*), *claret* (F. *clair-et*, from adj. *clair*, L. *clarus*, "clear"), *flower-et*, etc. *Coquette*, *rosette*, *etiquette* are the modern French words kept unchanged. It was frequently added to words containing the diminutive *-l* (L. *-ulus*: above), thus giving rise to a double diminutive suffix *-let*: e.g. *riv-u-l-et* (L. *rivulus* from *rivus*, "gaunt-let" (F. *gant*, "glove," from *Gand*, *Gaunt*, or *Ghent* in Flanders), *notelet*, *ringlet* ("a little ring": hybrid).

(w) -ard, which appears in several substantives, is of Teutonic origin (O.H.G. *-hart*), but comes into English in words taken from French. Thus *coward* is O.F. *coart*, from Lat. *cauda*, "tail" + this suffix: in other formations (made in English) it has a similar depreciative force—e.g. *drunkard*, *dullard*, *braggart*. The same suffix appears in *Spaniard*.

§ 128. Further, the suffixes contained in words of Greek origin have come to us through a Romance source. We have the chief of them in

soph-ist; *barbar-ism*; *log-ic*;

to which we may add some which were independent words, but are now used much as suffixes of derivation: these are seen in *geo-logy*, *tele-gram*, *geo-graphy*.

(a) *-ist*, the Gk. *-ιστης* (adopted in L. as *-ista*), appears not only in Greek words such as *soph-ist* (*σοφός*, "wise"), *antagon-ist* (*ἀντί*, "against," + *ἀγωνιστής*, "struggler"—from *ἀγών*, "contest,"), but also in words with the first element of Latin origin—e.g. *non-conformist*, *art-ist*, *quiet-ist*, *dent-ist*: so *ego-t-ist* (for *ego-ist* from *ego*, "I"), where the *t* between the vowels is perhaps due to the termination of the last examples, as well as to the desire to avoid hiatus. The suffix is to a certain extent still living—e.g. *Scientist*, *Nihilist*.

(b) *-ism*, the Gk. *-ισμος* (in L. as *-ismus*), forms abstract nouns: *soph-ism*, *antagon-ism*, *barbar-ism*, *the-ism*, etc. Hybrids (the suffix being living) are not uncommon: *social-ism*.

(c) *-ic*, properly an adjective suffix, Gk. *-ικός* (generally fem. *-ική*, agreeing with *τέχνη*, "art," understood in its English derivatives) appears in names of sciences, arts, etc.: *mus-ic*, *log-ic*: with added *-s* of plural, *mathemat-ic-s*, *eth-ic-s*, *polit-ic-s*, etc. When used as adjectives in English, words ending formerly in *-ic* frequently have the Lat. *-al* (§ 152d) added: e.g. *mechan-ic-al*, *mathemat-ic-al*.

Public (L. *publicus*), *civic* (L. *civicus*), do not contain this suffix, but its Latin cognate.

For the Prefixes used in English nouns, see the general alphabetical list in §§ 197-8.

CHAPTER XI.

PRONOUNS.

(a) *Classification.*

§ 129. Pronouns denote persons or things whose names have been mentioned, or are presumed to be known: they indicate without denominating.

(a) Derivation: F. *pronom* from L. *pro*, "instead of" + *nomen*, "name."

(b) Logically pronouns are a species of noun: in grammar it is found convenient to treat them as a different part of speech. As far, however, as syntax is concerned the treatment of the two is practically identical.

§ 129 A. Pronouns are classified as—

Personal	e.g. <i>I, you, she.</i>
Possessive	<i>ours, theirs.</i>
Reflexive and Emphatic	<i>myself, themselves.</i>
Demonstrative	<i>this, that.</i>
Interrogative	<i>who? which?</i>
Relative	<i>who, which.</i>
Indefinite	<i>anyone, everybody.</i>

(a) Certain words discussed as Numeral and Indefinite Adjectives (ch. xii.) are freely used also as Pronouns, and are sometimes called Numeral Pronouns: these include all the cardinal numbers and such words as *all, many, some*, etc.

(b) A pronoun is called reflexive (L. *reflectere*, "bend back") when it refers to the subject of the sentence and is not in the nominative case—e.g. "He did it for *himself*," "I helped *myself*"; but the same words are often merely emphatic—e.g. "I *myself* did it."

(c) Interrogative Pronouns (L. *interrogare*, "ask") are used in asking questions—e.g. "*Who* did it?" "*What* do you say?"

(d) Relative Pronouns (L. *relat-um*, used as supine of *referre*, "bear back") refer to something which has already been indicated: "I took the book, *which* lay on the table." The thing referred to is called the Antecedent (L. *antecedent-em*, "going before").

(b) *Inflection.*

§ 130. The forms of the Personal and Possessive pronouns are:—

	"First Person."		"Second Person."		"Third Person."			
Nominative	I	we	thou	you, ye	he	she	it	they
Possessive	{ my mine	our ours	thy thine	your yours	his	her	its	their theirs
Objective	me	us	thee	you	him	her	it	them

(a) The possessive forms:—

(i) *my, our, thy, your, her, their* are only used with the position of attributive adjectives—i.e. immediately before a noun; like all possessive cases now used in English, their force is adjectival, and they are generally termed *Possessive Adjectives*.

(ii) The forms *mine, ours, thine, yours, hers, theirs* are used only as possessive pronouns—i.e. when the noun they depend on does not follow: e.g. *This is your book, but that is mine* [or: *my book*]. But *thine* and *mine* are occasionally found as archaisms for *thy* and *my* before a vowel.

(iii) *his* may be either possessive adjective or pronoun.

(b) The forms *thou, thy, thine, thee* are archaic: we use them now in addresses to the Deity and in poetic diction. Originally *thou, thee* were regularly employed for the singular; *ye, you* for the plural: subsequently the plural forms became customary in polite converse for the singular as well as the plural, *thou, thee* being used by a superior to an inferior or in addresses of endearment, close familiarity etc.: cp. the German use of *du*, and the French of *tu*.

ye is also archaic: it represents the old nominative, but has been displaced by the object-form *you* [see 131 (a)].

(c) In *mine, thine*, the *n* is the old possessive singular inflexion (the *e* is orthographical, denoting the length of the vowel), and of these *my, thy*, are merely shortened forms.

In *her* (possessive) we have preserved a remnant of the possessive singular *feminine*.

In *his* the final *s* is the common possessive singular inflexion : *his* was originally both masc. and neut.

(*d*) *Its* is quite a modern form (17th cent.) which has supplanted *his* as neuter ; an intermediate form *it* [uninflected] being sometimes found : the *-s* here is the usual possessive inflexion, given to it by analogy with other possessives.

(*e*) *Ours, yours, hers, theirs* are sometimes called *double genitives* : they owe their form to the fact that the *-r* had lost its genitival force to our ancestors' ears, owing to the almost universal appearance of *s* [*'s, s'*] in that capacity [§ 113*d*] : hence a quasi-possessive *s* was added.

(*f*) The *m* in *him* is the old case ending of the *dativ* masculine singular, which is only preserved in this word and in *whom* [see § 135] ; in *them* it is the *dativ* plural flexion, as in *whilom, seldom*, § 206*d*. In *her* (object) the *r* is the remnant of the *dativ* singular *feminine* flexion. Observe therefore that *him, her, whom* are *dativ* forms which have come to be used in all object relations (i.e. accusative and *dativ*) supplanting the older accusative in accordance with the general tendency which has levelled these in all nouns in English.

(*g*) Similarly *me, us, thee, you* represent both the old accusative and the *dativ*, the forms having however fallen together even in O.E. by the loss of a final guttural from the accusative. *It* (object) represents the old accusative, which was the same as the nominative : the *dativ* form was *him*, which is now only used as a masculine.

(*h*) Notice that *it* (etymologically the neuter of *he*) has dropped its initial aspirate, being originally *hit*.

§ 131. Each personal pronoun shows more than one root. *She* was originally the *feminine* of the demonstrative adjective, and has supplanted the form from the root of *he*, which in M.E. became practically identical with the masculine : *they, their, them* are also originally demonstrative adjectives, and have supplanted forms from the *he* root : but the object (originally *dativ*) *hem* survives in common speech with dropping of initial *h*, as *'em*, which could not of course be produced from *them*.

* (a) The O.E. forms are :—

Singular.		
Nom.	ic (<i>I</i>)	þū (<i>thou</i>)
Acc.	mē (older <i>mæo</i>)	þē (older <i>þeo</i>)
Gen.	mīn	þīn
Dat.	mē	þē
Plural.		
Nom.	wē	gē
Acc.	ūs (older <i>ūsio</i>)	ēow (older <i>ēowio</i>)
Gen.	ūre	ēower
Dat.	ūs	ēow

There were also duals *wit* ("we two"), *uncit* and *unc*, *uncer*, *unc*; and *git* ("ye two"), *ineit* and *ine*, *inoer*, *ine*. Cp. the Ger. cognates throughout.

* (b)	Nom. he (<i>he</i>)	[hēo (<i>she</i>)]	hit (<i>it</i>)	plur [hīe]
	Acc. [hine]	[hīe]	hit	[hīe]
	Gen. his	hire	[his]	[hira]
	Dat. him	hire	him	[him]

The forms in square brackets have been supplanted in modern English, as explained above.

§ 132. The forms of the Demonstrative pronouns are—

this, plur. *these*; *that*, plur. *those*.

(a) *This* (demonstrative adjective or pronoun) has historically both plurals *these* and *those*, but the latter is now only used as plural of *that* (adj. or pron.). *That* itself is by origin (but no longer in use) the neuter singular (nom. and acc. only) of the "definite article"—i.e. corresponds with *the*. [Observe that *-t* is a neuter inflexion—and the only English one surviving—in *it*, *that*, *what*.]

* (b) The O.E. forms are—

Singular.			Plural.
N. sē	sēo	þæt ("that")	þā
A. þone	þā	þæt	þā
G. þæs	þære	þæs	þāra
D. þēam	þære	þēam	þēam
Instr. þȳ	þȳ		

For *sē*, *sēo*, from the latter of which is our *she*, are generally found in M.E. *þē*, *þeo*.

N. þes	þeos	þis	þās
A. þisne	þās	þis	þās
G. þises	þisse	þises	þissa
D. þisum	þisse	þisum	þissum
Instr. þȳs		þȳs	

§ 133. The forms of the Interrogative pronouns are (sing. and plur.)—

Nominative:	<i>who</i>	neut. <i>what</i>
Possessive:	<i>whose</i>	
Objective:	<i>whom</i>	<i>what</i>

§ 134. The Relative pronouns are the same as the Interrogative with the addition of the indeclinable *that* (object or subject: sing. or plur.).

§ 135. Which is used as an Interrogative or Relative pronoun, but in the latter case (now) only with a neuter antecedent. As an Interrogative adjective it may be the attribute of nouns of any gender, and so may *what*.

* (a) The O.E. forms are—

N.	hwā (<i>who</i>)	hwæt (<i>what</i>)
A.	hwone	hwæt
G.	hwaes	
D.	hwæm	
Instr.	hwȳ	

Which is a compound equivalent in meaning to "whom-like": O.E. *hwile* and *hwile* for *hwā* + *lie*; cp. Ger. *welch-er* and the formation of *such*, § 148. Note that *whom* is by origin dative only: see § 130f.

(c) *Formation and Structure.*

§ 136. For the etymology of the personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns, see above.

§ 137. The emphatic and reflexive forms *him-self*, etc., are compounds, in which originally the second element was an independent word in apposition with the personal pronoun, and therefore agreed with it: in *himself*, *themselves* (possibly *herself*) the compound shows the personal pronoun with the old dative case preserved (§ 130): in the others of this class the possessive survives.

(a) The personal pronouns are sometimes used reflexively—e.g. "I had all my friends about *me*."

§ 138. Aught, naught are compounds; see *not* (§ 208). The other indefinite pronouns are discussed under Indefinite Adjectives (ch. xii.): for the numerals, see § 147.

CHAPTER XII.

THE ADJECTIVE.

(a) Classification.

§ 139. An adjective is a word used with a substantive to qualify it.

(a) *Adjective* fr. L. *adjectivus*, "added to," from *adjicere* = *ad*, "to" + *jacere*, "throw."

(b) Adjectives are freely used in English (as in other languages) with the omission of the word they qualify, in which case they come to be regarded as substantives—e.g. "The *learned* say so," "The *best* of it is," etc.

(c) Monosyllabic adjective and adverb forms are often identical—e.g. "a *quick* train (adj.); "come *quick*" (adv.); see § 202a.

§ 140. Adjectives are classified as—

Qualitative	.	.	e.g. <i>black, tall, cold</i>
Numeral	.	.	<i>three, twenty</i>
Determinative	.	.	<i>my, this, the</i>
Indefinite	.	.	<i>every, some, all, a</i>

(a) Further subdivisions of the three last classes are often made; thus some recognise (besides Qualitative) the following—

Demonstrative	.	.	<i>this, the</i>
Possessive	.	.	<i>my, your</i>
Distributive	.	.	<i>every, each</i>
Indefinite	.	.	<i>some, a, sundry</i>
Interrogative	.	.	<i>what? which?</i>
Relative	.	.	<i>what, which</i>
Quantitative	.	.	<i>many, all</i>

Further, Adjectives such as *this, any, his*, etc., which are often Pronouns, are sometimes called Pronominal Adjectives.

(b) The older grammarians gave the name of definite article (*L. articulus*, "a joint") to the demonstrative adjective *the*: they called *a, an* the indefinite article.

(b) *Inflexion.*

§ 141. The only inflexions which adjectives now retain are those of comparison. No change of form marks any difference of gender, number, or case, except in the words *these, those*, which have plural forms distinct from the singular: see § 132.

(a) The O.E. adjective was fully inflected, and had two different modes of declension according as it was preceded by a demonstrative adjective (weak declension) or was not so preceded (strong), much as in modern German. With the gradual levelling of inflexions the two declensions fell into one by the passage of the bulk of the inflexions into *-e*, which finally itself disappeared (§ 6).

* (b) [i] The O.E. declensions of *gōd*, "good," will show the various inflexions:—

		Strong.			Weak.		
		m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
Sing.	Nom.	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōda</i>	<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōde</i>
	Acc.	<i>gōdne</i>	<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōdan</i>	<i>gōdan</i>	<i>gōde</i>
	Gen.	<i>gōdes</i>	<i>gōdre</i>	<i>gōdes</i>	<i>gōdan</i>		
	Dat.	<i>gōdum</i>	<i>gōdre</i>	<i>gōdum</i>	<i>gōdan</i>		
	Instr.	<i>gōde</i>		<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōdan</i>		
Plur.	N.A.	<i>gōde</i>	<i>gōda</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōdan</i>		
	Gen.		<i>gōdra</i>		<i>gōdra</i>		
	D.I.		<i>gōdum</i>		<i>gōdum</i>		

[ii] In M.E. (as in Chaucer's East Midland of later part of 14th century) the strong form has *gōd* and the weak *gōde* in the singular throughout: in the plural *gōde* for all forms. But adjectives of more than one syllable—especially of Romance origin—are generally uninflected.

§ 142. There are three degrees of Comparison; viz. the Positive (e.g. *long*), Comparative (*longer*), Superlative (*longest*).

(a) The **Positive** adjective expresses simply a quality without reference to the quality as contained by anything else: e.g. a *big* boy, a *little* book.

The **Comparative** expresses an excess of a quality in the thing it limits over the extent of that quality possessed by something with which comparison is made: e.g. a *bigger* boy (i.e. *bigger* than some other indicated or mentioned—or with the same boy at some other time).

The **Superlative** expresses excess of a quality in the thing it limits over the extent of that quality possessed by all other things with which comparison is made: e.g. "the *biggest* boy" (i.e. *bigger* than any other boy with whom the boy indicated is compared).

(b) Only adjectives of quality (and one or two of quantity: e.g. *much*, *little*) admit of comparison: but many adjectives of quality have meanings which obviously do not allow them to be compared when used in their literal meaning: e.g. *complete*, *unique*, *wooden*, *square*, *cone-shaped*—yet frequently to such words a somewhat extended and metaphorical meaning is given, under which circumstances they may admit the idea of comparison: thus by "this is *squarer* than that" we probably mean "this *more nearly approaches* the figure of a square than that does."

§ 143. The Comparative and Superlative degrees may be formed—

(i) **FLEXIONALLY**: by the addition of *-er*, *-est* to the positive: *longer*, *longest*; or

(ii) **ANALYTICALLY**: by using the adverbs *more*, *most* before the positive: *more ridiculous*, *most laughable*.

The former method is used with monosyllables and with some words of two syllables (especially such as end in *-le*, *-er*, *-y*): the *more* and *most* combinations (the consideration of which does not properly belong to accidence) are preferred in other cases. Thus we say *quick*, *quick-er*, *quick-est*; *speedy*, *speed-ier*, *speed-iest* (or *more* and *most speedy*); *rapid*, *more rapid*, *most rapid* (but *rapid-er*, *rapid-est* are allowable; *stupidest* is freely used); *more insufferable*, *most ludicrous*.

(a) Certain mere spelling changes take place on adding the flexions of comparison. Final *e* disappears—e.g. *fine*, *fin-er*, *subtil-est*: final *y* becomes *i*—e.g. *happy-er*, *silly-est*: final consonant after short accented vowel is doubled—e.g. *hig-g-er*, *thin-n-er*.

(b) As noticed above, there is no absolutely hard and fast rule with regard to the use of one or the other mode of comparison: thus even with words of more than two syllables the *-er*, *-est* forms are sometimes used, and on the other hand *more*, *most* are sometimes used with monosyllables.

* (c) The *-er* of comparatives is in O.E. *-r-a*, where the *a* is merely the weak adjectival inflexion which has, as usual, vanished: the superlative *-est* is O.E. *-ost* (also spelt *-ust*, *-ast*, and later *-est*): e.g. *glæd* ("glad"), *glæd-r-a*, *glæd-ost*.

* (d) The comparative termination represents an original Teutonic *-iz-* and *-oz-*, which stands for an Indo-European *-ios-* (for the change from *-s-* to *-r-*, see § 52a): it is cognate with the suffix of comparison in Latin—e.g. *dur-ior* (for a hypothetical *dur-ios*) and in Gk. *μῆλ'ω* (contracted for hypothetical *μῆλ'ω-s-a* comp. of *μῆλ'-ας*). The suffix in Modern German is precisely as in English (e.g. *schön*, *schön-er*), but causes mutation much more freely: see *Elder*, § 145g.

* (e) The superlative *-est* is a compound suffix representing an original Teutonic *-es-t* and *-os-t*, where the first element is identical with the comparative suffix discussed above, and the *-t* has superlative force; it represents an Indo-European *-is-to* and *-os-to*, of which we see the first element in the usual Latin superlative as in *dur-issimus* and both in the Gk. *μῆλ'ω-ρο-s*. The suffix in Modern German is practically the same as in Modern English, but is contracted where possible to *-st* (e.g. *schön-st*, but *süss-est*), and causes mutation much more freely.

§ 144. m-superlatives.—A certain number of superlatives are found ending in *-most* (which is *not* the adverb "most"): notice that these have as a rule comparatives but no regular positives, having been formed from adverbs:—

[fore]	former	foremost and first
[forth]	further	furthermost
[in]	inner	inmost and innermost
[out]	{ outer utter	outmost, outermost utmost, uttermost
[up]	upper	upmost, uppermost

(a) The termination *-most* is a double superlative suffix: its form should be *-m-est*, for it is compounded of the superlative suffix *-m* (no longer used independently) and the usual superlative *-est*; its change of form to *-most* is due to a supposed connection with the adverb *most*.

(b) The *-m-* as a superlative flexion is the same as that we see in *L. pri-m-us* (whence Eng. *prime*), *ulti-m-us*, *inti-m-us*, etc.

(c) **Former, foremost, first.**—The old form of the superlative was *for-m-a* (where *-m-* is the superlative flexion above discussed): to this was added the termination *-est* producing the double superlative *formest*, which subsequently became *foremost* by false analogy with *most* as explained above. The comparative *former* was formed to match this superlative, the original superlative force of the *m* being lost sight of: hence *for-m-er* exhibits a comparative suffix tacked on to a superlative one. *First* exhibits the superlative formed in the regular way by the suffix *-est*, but it has undergone contraction, and the root vowel has been mutated: O.E. *fyrst*, for *for* + *-est*, *-ist*.

(d) **Inmost, innermost.**—*Inmost* is formed on the same principle as *foremost* above: the *r* in the parallel form *innermost* is due to confusion with the comparative (O.E. superl. is *inn-c-mest*): it may be noticed that most of the comparatives in the list above (*inner*, *outer*, etc.) are practically used only as positives, since they cannot be followed by *than*. *Outer* and *utter* are doublets: as to the formation of the superlatives the same remarks as on *inmost* and *innermost* are applicable.

(e) Similarly are formed such words as *northmost*, *northernmost*, *topmost*, and others, *-most* coming to be used practically as a superlative inflexion.

§ 145. The following adjectives exhibit peculiarities of comparison:—

far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
late	later, latter	latest, last
nigh, near	nigher, nearer	highest, next, nearest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

(a) **Further, farther, etc.** *Fur-th-er* is etymologically the comparative of the adverb *fore* (§ 144c), the *-th-* being part of a rare suffix of comparison *-ther* (see below): it was early regarded as a comparative of *forth* (which is from the same root with a suffix), and hence the *-th-* was retained in the superlative *furthest*. Again, *farther* and *farthest* are the comparative and superlative of *far*, and therefore should be, if formed regularly in modern English, *far-er*, *far-est*; but they owe their *th* to a mistaken connection with *further*, *furthest*.

* (b) The O.E. forms are *fore*; *furðra*; *forma*, *fyrmeſt*, an *l fyrest* [no *th* superlative], and *feor*, "far," *fierra*, *fierreſt*, the latter two showing mutation. For *-ther* as comparative suffix compare the cognate Gk. *πρό-τερος* (from *προς*) and Ger. *vor-der* (from *vor*): we have the suffix again in *o-ther*, *who-ther*, etc. (§ 150).

(c) *Later*, *latter* are parallel forms of the comparative (where the doubled *t* is merely an orthographic device to denote the shortness of the vowel): *later* is used as the comparative of *late* in its ordinary meanings; *latter* is restricted to mean the second of two things mentioned. Similarly *last* (which is a contracted form for *latest*, *laſt*: cp. *beſt* for *beſteſt*, § 146) is restricted to its use in speaking of a number of things regarded as forming a series.

* (d) The cognates of *late*, L. *lass-us* and Ger. *lass*, have better preserved the original force of the word—"weary," "slow." The root *lat* is the same as that of the verb *let*, "hinder."

(e) *Nigh*, *near*, etc.—*Nigh* is compared quite regularly (viz. *nigh-er*, *nigh-eſt*), but it also has an older contracted superlative *neſt* [in which the *w* stands for the O.E. guttural *h* (now written *gh* in *nigh*, but no longer sounded) + *s*, see *(f) below]: the *nigh* forms are archaic and poetical. *Near* is etymologically the (contracted) comparative of *nigh*, and therefore a doublet of *nigher*: but owing to its form it has been taken as a positive, whence *nearer*, *nearest* have been formed from it in the usual way. Hence *nea-r-er* is etymologically a double comparative, while *nea-r-eſt* shows a superlative suffix appended to a comparative one.

* (f) The O.E. forms are *nēah*, *nēarra*, *nīehst*, and (later) *nīeſt*: cp. Ger. *nach* (guttural preserved) and *nahe*, *nāher*, *nācheſt*; similarly Ger. *höchſt* corresponds to a now obsolete Eng. *heſt* (O.E. *hīehst* = "highest").

(g) *Older*, *elder*.—*Elder*, *eldest* show mutation caused by the suffix of comparison; cp. *fiſt*, *beſt*, §§ 144, 146: the mutated root *eld* remains in the archaic *eld*, "age," "antiquity." *Older*, *oldest* are regular formations, formed by analogy with nearly all other comparatives which either were without mutation or have discarded it.

* (h) The O.E. forms *eald*, *iēldra*, *iēldreſt*, Ger *alt*, *älter*, *älteſt* show the mutation more clearly.

§ 146. In a few adjectives (and adverbs) the positive form has no etymological connection with the comparative and superlative :—

good, well	better	best
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
much, many	more	most
little	less	least

(a) All the above words may be used as adverbs as well as adjectives except *good*, *bad*, *evil*, *many* : *ill* and *well* are generally adverbs.

(b) **Better, Best.**—The root is *bat*, which may be taken to represent what the positive form would be: the comparative from this is formed regularly with the suffix *-er*, causing mutation [see § 143d: thus *better* stands for *bat* + *ir(a)*]: the superlative *best* stands for *betst* [for *bat* + *ist*, § 143e], with contraction of suffix, and the usual assimilation and reduction of *-tst* to *-st* [for which cp. *last*, § 145].

(c) **Worse, Worst.**—The comparative here is formed from a root ending in *-s*, viz. *wars*: the general Teutonic type of the comparative of this would be *wers-is-a* [it appears in Gothic as *wairs-iz-a*]: owing to contraction the *s* of the comparative suffix has not passed as usual into *r* (§ 143d); the stem of course shows mutation. The superlative stands for *wors-est*; i.e. contracted (cp. *best*, *last*).

(d) **Less, Least.**—The stem here as in *worse* ends in *-s*, viz. *las*: the formation is similar to that considered in (c) above.

(e) **More, Most, Much, Mickle.**—The word *more* now does duty for two words kept distinct in the earlier language; viz. (i) *mo*, a comparative adverb (noun of quantity), meaning "more in number," used like L. *plus*, and (ii) *more*, a comparative adjective, meaning "greater," L. *maior*. Both come from the same root—*magh*, *mag* which is the same as in *may*—but *more* has an additional comparative suffix *-r*: *most* exhibits the usual superlative suffix, but contracted after the vowel.

Mickle (in which the *-l* is an adjective termination, § 151) is the real form of the positive of these words (O.E. *mic-el*), but it has given way almost entirely to the form *much* which is a variant of the same word without the final syllable; the use of *much*, in its primitive sense "great," is preserved in a few place-names, e.g. *Much-Wenlock*, while *muckle*, *mickle* retain the same force in the North. [N.B.—*Many* is from an entirely different root.]

* The O.E. forms are *mā* and *māra* (both comparatives), *māest*: Ger. *mehr*, *meist*: the Latin cognates are *mag-is* ("mo") and *mag-or* ("mo-re"): Gk. *μέγ-ιστ-ος* ("mo-st"). With O.E. *micel* cp. Gk. *μεγ-άλ-η*. [The totally unconnected word *many* is in O.E. *mānig*, the *æ* being mutation of *a* (caused by the suffix): we preserve the mutation in our pronunciation of the word (so also in *any*, § 150e) though not in the spelling: the German cognate is *manch*.]

(c) *Structure and Formation.*

§ 147. Primitive Words.—A number of monosyllabic adjectives have no trace of suffix or prefix, and appear to be simple roots in their modern English form—e.g. *all*, *good*, *one*. Others again, though evidently not primitive, appear with obscure suffixes, whose original force and form cannot be very exactly traced—e.g. *fair* (O.E. *fæger*), *cold* (cp. § 123).

(a) Among words belonging to these classes are the numerals (which may be regarded by origin perhaps as pronouns rather than adjectives) from *one* to *ten*:—

one	O.E. <i>ān</i>	cognate with L. <i>un-us</i>	Gk. <i>ἓν</i>	Ger. <i>ein</i>
two	<i>twā</i>		<i>δύο</i>	<i>zwei</i>
three	<i>thrēo</i>	tri-a	<i>τρί-α</i>	<i>drei</i>
four	<i>fēower</i>	quattuor	<i>τέτταρ-α</i>	<i>vier</i>
five	<i>fif</i>	quinque	<i>πέντε</i>	<i>fünf</i>
six	<i>siex</i>	sex	<i>ἕξ</i>	<i>sechs</i>
seven	<i>seofon</i>	septem	<i>ἑπτὰ</i>	<i>sieben</i>
eight	<i>eahta</i>	octo	<i>ὀκτώ</i>	<i>acht</i>
nine	<i>nigon</i>	novem	<i>ἐννέα</i>	<i>neun</i>
ten	<i>tien</i>	decem	<i>δέκα</i>	<i>zehn</i>

(b) A note on the form of the other numerals may be conveniently added here:—

eleven, O.E. *en(ā)lufon* (cogn. Ger. *elf*), is a compound in which the first element means *one* (and is practically the same word in another form), while the meaning of the second element (*-lufon*, *-leven*) is "ten": thus *e-leven* means *one + ten*: cp. the formation of *un-decim* in Latin and Gk. *ἑν-δεκα*.

twelve is in O.E. *twelf* (cogn. Ger. *zwölf*), which stands for *twā + lif*, where *twā* = "two" and *lif* (as in *eleven* above) means "ten": thus *tweloe* means *two + ten*: cp. formation of *duo-decim*, *δύ-δεκα*.

thirteen: this is *three* + *ten* with metathesis in the first element (cp. *thirty*). So *-teen*—i.e. "*ten*"—in *fourteen*, *fifteen*, *sixteen*, etc.

twenty, O.E. *twentig* (Ger. *zwanzig*), the first syllable *twen* = O.E. *twegen*, "two": *-ty* = O.E. *-tig*, "ten" (this *-tig* preserves the guttural lost in O.E. *tien*: cp. *dec-em*): so *-ty*, "ten," in *thirty*, *forty*, etc.

hundred is a compound in which the first syllable *hund-* is cognate with the first syllable of L. *cent-um* (for *decem-t-um*), and means "a hundred": the *-red* is a word meaning "reckoning," "tale" (allied to vb. *read*). Cognate with Ger. *hundert*.

thousand is a word of unexplained origin, found in all the Teutonic languages (Ger. *Tausend*).

The only numeral of Romance origin is *mill-ion*, from L. *mille*, "thousand." Two other words of Romance origin connected with the numerals are *second* (L. *secundus*: it has displaced the English *other* in this sense) and *dozen*, F. *douzaine* = *douze* (L. *duodecim*) + suffix *-aine* (L. *-anus*, § 127*d*).

(c) The adjective *an* (with its short form *a* used before consonants) is an unemphatic form of the numeral *one*: cp. use of Ger. *ein* and F. *un*. The indefinite pronoun *one* used like Ger. *man* and F. *on* (but not etymologically connected with it) is the same word.

(d) *Twain* (now archaic) and *two* only spring from a difference of gender: *twain* is O.E. *twegen* (contracted to *twēn* as in *twen-ty* above) the masculine; *two* is *twā* or *tū*, the neuter (so Ger. *zwei*, *zween*).

§ 148. Compounds (§ 120) are generally easily recognisable: we may take as typical examples of various kinds, *stone-blind*, *well-fed*, *epoch-making*, *black-hearted*.

(a) And the classes discussed in § 149 belong here, strictly speaking.

(b) A number of disguised compounds among the indefinite adjectives, pronouns, etc., should be noticed.

each: this contains the suffix which often appears as *-like*, *-ly* (§ 149*e*); O.E. *ælc* for *ā*, "ever" + *gēlic*, "like."

such is in a similar way equivalent to "so-like": O.E. *swiſc* for *swā* + *lic* (Ger. *solch*).

which, similarly "who like": see § 135.

every is a compound of *ever* and *each* (see above): O.E. *æfre* + *ælc*, M.E. *everilk*, *everich*. [*Ilk* in the Northern dialect ("Scotch") is still used in the sense of "like," "same."]

either is equivalent to "ever-whether," being in O.E. *ægþer*, a contraction of *æghwæþer* = *æ*, "ever" (as in *each*, *aught*) + *ge* prefix + *hwæþer*, "whether," § 150i. Ger. *jeder*.

neither is equivalent to "no-whether": O.E. *nāhwæðer*, where *nā* = "no," "not," and *hwæðer* = "whether." [Notice that it is not exactly a compound of *either*.]

aught, *naught* (pronouns): see *not* (§ 208).

(c) Righteous is a corruption of "right-wise," O.E. *riht-wis*, "wise as to what is right"; cp. "weather-wise." The corruption is due to the influence of the Romance *-ous*, 152g.

shamefaced is for *shame-fast*: see § 149a.

§ 149. Teutonic suffixes which are known to have existed as independent words appear in

steadfast, *manifold*, *playful*, *heartless*, *manlike* and *manly*, *northward*.

(a) *-fast* (the same as the adjective *fast*, "fixed") appears only in *steadfast* ("firm in its *stead*," or place), and in *shamefaced*, which a corruption by popular etymology connected with *face*; the original meaning of *shamefast*, is "fixed in modesty," "modest," *shame* having its old sense of *modesty*, as in *shameless*.

* The O.E. form is *-fæst*, as in *stedefæst*, *scamufæst*, *sōðfæst* (*sōð*, "sooth," "truth").

(b) *-fold* forms multiplicatives, e.g. *manifold*, *fourfold*. It can be added to any numeral (except *one*).

* O.E. *-feald*, same origin as verb *fold*; same force, metaphor and usage as cognate Ger. *-falt*.

(c) *-ful*, same as adj. *full*, with the same meaning, in *sorrowful* ("full of sorrow"), *thankful*, *lawful*, *beautiful* (a hybrid: F. *beauté*), etc.

* The O.E. form is *-full*, e.g. *sorgfull* (*sorg*, "sorrow"); Ger. cognate appears in *gedanken-voll*, etc.

(d) *-less* denotes "absence of" when used in composition. [N.B.—It is *not* connected etymologically with adverb *less*, but is practically a doublet of adjective *loose*, and is allied to verbs *loose*, *lose*]. Examples are *heartless*, *careless*, *thoughtless*, etc.

* The O.E. form is *-lēas*, e.g. *ār-lēas* (*ār*, "honour"); Ger. *-los*, as in *herzlos* ("heartless").

(e) *-like*, *-ly* (= adj. "like"; the longer form is found only in modern formations) appears in *manlike*, *catlike*, *godlike*, *manly*, *godly*, *goodly*, *ghostly*, etc. It is (in the form *-ly*) the usual adverb formative, § 205. It enters (in disguised forms of *like*) into *such*, *which*, *each*, *every*; see § 148.

* It is the O.E. *lic*, as in *gäst-lic* ("ghostly"), *ēorðlic* ("earthly"), etc.; the Ger. cognate *-lich* (the independent word is *gleich*, for *ge-leich*) is used similarly, e.g. *männlich*.

(f) *-ward* ("turned to") appears in *northward*, *homeward*, *backward*, *forward* ("turned to the fore or front"), *forward* (turned from), etc.

* The O.E. form is *-weard*, as in *hāmweard*; the Ger. cognate is used (like Eng. *-ward-s*, § 207) in forming adverbs; e.g. *heimwärt-s*, "*home-ward-s*." The root is the same as that of O.E. *weorðan* (Ger. *werden*), "become"; cognate with L. *vert-ere*, supine *vers-um*, whence *a-verse* (i.e. "fro-ward"), *re-verse*, etc.

§ 150. Of the Teutonic suffixes not known as independently existing words, the chief appear in the following words:—

weari-some, *gold-en*, *four-th*, *blood-y*, *child-ish*,

and in the participial formations,

lov-ing, *belov-ed*, *brok-en*,

and in the comparative formations,

o-ther, *utt-er*.

(a) *-some*, with the force "full of," "adapted to," appears in *wholesome*, *winsome* (O.E. *wyn*, "joy"), *quarrelsome* (a hybrid; F. *querelle*, L. *querela*, from *queri*, "complain"), *toilsome*, *noisome* (F. *nuire*, from L. *nocere*, "hurt"). *Lissom* is equivalent to *lithe-some*; *buxom* is M.E. *buk-sam*, from *bug-an*, "to bow," "bend"; its sense is first "pliable," "supple," "*bow-some*," so to say.

* The O.E. form is *-sum*, as in *wynsum*; the Ger. cognate *-sam* has the same force: e.g. *furchtsam* ("fearsome"), *biegsam* ("flexible").

(b) *-en*, *-n* is used to form adjectives from names of materials, e.g. *wooden*, *woollen*, *brazen* (brass), *silver-n* [archaic], *leather-n*.

* The O.E. form is the same, but generally causes mutation, as in *gold*, *gylden*; the Ger. use is that of Modern Eng., e.g. *golden*.

(c) *-en, -n*, being also the past participial suffix of strong verbs (§ 168), we have it in many of these forms used as adjectives and in analogous forms: e.g. *broken, unbroken, misshapen*. [The adjectival form often preserves the suffix where the verbal form has dropped it: see § 170*b*].

(d) *-th* forms ordinal adjectives from the cardinals (§ 147); thus *fourth, one-and-twentieth, millionth* (hybrid, § 147*b*). In *third* the suffix appears as *d* (the form is a metathesis for *thrid*; cp. *thirty, thirteen*; Ger. *dritte*). [*First* (a superlative), *second* (L. verbal adj.) of course do not belong here.]

* The cognate suffix is seen in L. and Ger. ordinals; cp. L. *ter-tius*, Eng. *thir-d*, Ger. (*der*) *dri(t)-t-e*; § 52*a*.

(e) *-y* forms adjectives from a large number of nouns, e.g. *foam-y, dirt-y, dust-y, thirst-y*. *An-y* is O.E. *æn-ig*, from *æn*, "one"; for the *i* causing mutation preserved in the Modern English sound, but not spelling, cp. *many*, § 146*e*. [*Every* does not belong here; see § 148*b*.]

* The O.E. form is *-ig* as in *ænig*, above; cognate Ger. *-ig* (frequently causing mutation) as in *etn-ig, gut-ig*.

(f) *-ish* forms adjectives from nouns and adjectives generally with pejorative or diminutive force, e.g. *childish, womanish, mannish* ("like a *child*," etc., in bad sense; contrast *childlike*, etc.), *greenish* ("rather green"). It appears in national names, as *English* (§ 1; mutation from *Angel*), *French* (from *Frank*, with mutation and contraction = *Frankish*), *Scotch* (cp. fuller form, *Scottish*), etc.

* The O.E. form is *isc*: e.g. *Englisc*; in Ger. it is *-isch*, used much as in English; e.g. *kündisch, höfisch, englisch*.

(g) *-ed, -d, -t*, the past participial suffix of weak verbs (§ 168), occurs in many adjectives formed on a similar model: *good-natured, well-meant, housed, dead* (vb. *die*), *learned, provisioned, booted and spurred* (where it is obvious that these are formed directly from the nouns *boot, spur*).

(h) *-ing* is merely the present participle suffix—*Loving, charming*, etc.; § 166 (iii).

(i) *-ther* (§ 145*b*) appears as a comparative suffix in *whether* and its compounds *either* (§ 148), *neither* (§ 148), and in *o-ther* (which has lost an *n*: cp. Ger. *ander*), *further* (but not *farther*, § 145), etc. *Whether* (O.E. *hwæðer*), is from the root of *who* (O.E. *hwā*) and means originally "which of two": cognate with L. *u-ter*, Gk. *πρ-ε-ρ-ος*, Ger. *we-der* (which now means "neither," conjunction). [*Rather* does not belong here: it is the regular comparative of archaic *rathe* "early," and is now only used as an adverb.]

§ 151. Among obscurer Teutonic suffixes, those shown in the following words are noticeable :—

bitt-er, sick-le, yell-ow, east-ern.

(a) *-er*, as in *bitt-er* (root of *bite*), in contracted form in *fair* (O.E. *fæger*). Cp. the *-er* in nouns (§ 126), which is possibly the same termination.

* Ger. cognate as in *bitter, lauter, heiter*.

(b) *-le*, as in *sick-le, mickle, little, idle, evil*, and (contracted) in *foul*. Cp. *-el, -le* in nouns, § 126.

* Ger. cognate as in *eitel* ("vain"), *übel* ("evil").

(c) *-ow* in *yellow, sallow, fallow*.

(d) *-ern* in *eastern, western, northern, southern*.

Romance Suffixes.

§ 152. Our vocabulary contains adjectives showing a large number of suffixes of Romance origin (many of which we have already seen in treating of nouns, § 127). The chief of these appear in—

respectable, sensible, imagin-ary, famil-iar, hum-an, div-ine, loyal, cruel, gentle, puerile, civil, valiant, prudent, odious, morose, rapacious, captive, splendid, ornate, finite, Viennese, public.

(a) See § 127 for *-ary, -iar, -an, -ian, -ain, -ate, -ese, -ie* (as in *public*), and other forms of these.

(b) L. *-bilis* (in *-abilis, -ibilis, -ubilis*) has the force of "adapted for," "given to," and appears as *-ble* in French and English (many of such words being new coinages in these languages); *capable* (L. *capere*, "take"), *sociable* (L. *socius*, "companion"), *soluble* (L. *solvere*, "solve"), *lovable* (hybrid, Eng. *love*). *Able* is L. *habilis*, from *habere*, "have" (for dropped *h*, see § 81); so *ability, L. habilitatem*.

(c) L. *-inus*, F. *-in*, appears in *div-ine* (L. *divinus*, "god-like," from *divus*, "god"); *can-ine* (dog-like, from L. *canis*, "dog"); so *feline, sanguine, crystalline, infantine*. *Pilgr-im* has the suffix in somewhat more altered form; it is F. *pèler-in* (for *pelegr-in*) from L. *peregr-inus* (from *pereger*, "traveller," from *per*, "through"; *ager*, "land"); *peregr-ination* shows the form clearly.

(d) L. *-alis, -elis, -ilis*, are very common in English, especially in the form *-al* (which is often added to other adjectival suffixes: e.g. *adject-iv-al, log-ic-al*). Examples: *mor-al, soci-al, norm-al, artifi-cial; cru-el; frag-ile, sen-ile, infant-ile, civ-il, gent-ile, gent-le*, where *-le* is merely the modern spelling of older *-il, -ile*; words which now show the *-ile* are consequently as a rule of learned formation; cp. *fragile, frail* (§ 74).

(e) L. *-ent-em, -ant-em*, the pres. participial forms, both passed into French as *-ant*, and thence into English in the same form; but *-ent* from the *-ent-em* source is common, both through the action of pseudo-etymological spelling, and the formation of new words direct from Latin. Examples: *prudent* (L. adj. *prud-ent-em*) and *provident* (L. *provident-em*), *potent, absent, present*; *valiant* (L. *valere*), *puissant* (doublet of *potent*; L. *potent-em*, through French), *distant, elegant*. Notice pairs such as *dependent* and *dependant*, where the *-ent* form is used as adjective, and the *-ant* as noun.

(f) In *-esc-ent* we have this termination in words derived from Latin inceptive verbs in *-sco*; *adol-esc-ent, efferv-esc-ent*.

(g) L. *-osus* ("full of") passes in words of learned formation into Eng. *-ose*, as in *bellic-ose* (L. *bellum*, "war"), *verb-ose* ("word-y"; L. *verbum*, "word"), *grandi-ose* (L. *grandis*, "great"), *mor-ose* (L. *mor-os-us*, "self-willed," from *mor-es*, "behaviour"). In words of popular formation in French the Latin suffix became *-eux* (formerly pron. *s*: fem. *-euse*), whence English *-ous*, as in *monstr-ous, odious, envious* (F. *envieux*, L. *invidia*, "hate" + *-osus*), *spacious, glorious, copious*.

There are some cases, however, in which our *-ous* merely corresponds to the Latin adjective termination *-us*, the words being formed directly from Latin, and having their termination altered in accordance with the one common in English: *tremendous* (L. *tremend-us*: gerundival adjective of *tremere*), *stupendous* (L. *stup-ere*): so also in *conscious, carnivorous* (*carni*, stem of *caro*, "flesh" + *-vorus*, "eating," from *vor-are*, "devour"), *omnivorous* (*omni*, "all"), *fructiferous* (L. *-fer*, stem of *fer-re*, "bear"), *auriferous*, etc.

(h) L. *-ax, -aci-s* [denoting "propensity," "ability," as in *cap-ax* (L. *capere*), *ten-ax* (L. *tenere*), whence F. *tenace*], appears in English in the compound suffix *-aci-ous*, where the *-ous* is the suffix discussed above. Examples: *cap-aci-ous, tenacious, rapacious, loquacious, mendacious* (L. *mend-ax*, "given to lying"), *fallacious*. [In *farin-ace-ous* and a few more coined words the suffix is L. *-ace-us* (*farin-aceus*, from L. *farina*, "flour"), denoting material.]

(i) L. *-iv-us* appears in many adjectives, as e.g. *act-ive*, *pens-ive* (L. *pens-are*, "think," from stem of sup. of *pendere*, "weigh"), *fest-ive* (L. *fest-um*, "feast"), *capt-ive* (L. *captivus*, from *capt-um*, sup. stem *cap-ere*, "take"), *decis-ive*, *adjective*, *infinitive*, *nominative*, etc. Many of these words are used commonly as nouns, and the suffix has so far lost its adjective-forming force that *-al* is frequently added to it, as e.g. *adjectival*; cp. *sto-ic-al*, § 128c.

A few words with this suffix used in Norman-French have retained the French final *f* (as in F. *pensif*): these are *plaintiff* (a law term: cp. its doublet the adjective *plaintive*: the stem is *plaint-*, as in F. *plaint*, L. *planct-um*, supine of *plang-ere*, "strike the breast," "bewail," seen in *complain*, etc.), *bailiff* (law term: from F. *bail*), and *caitiff* (doublet of *captive*). [*Pontiff* does not belong here, being a mere shortening of L. *pontifex*: nor *sheriff*, which is a native compound = *shire* + *reeve*, the "reeve" being a king's officer.]

(k) L. *-id-us* (denoting originally, as a rule, a quality from a verbal root) is found in various adjectives of "learned" formation: *ac-id* (*ac-uerē*, "sharpen"), *frig-id*, *stup-id*, *rig-id*, *splend-id*, *tep-id*. [Words of popular origin in French lost this suffix, as a rule, entirely or preserve the consonant only in contracted forms: thus we have such doublets as *pale* and *pallid*, from L. *pallidus*.]

(l) L. *-atus*, past part. suffix, is discussed in § 194a; notice such doublets as *priv-ate* (L. *privatus*) and *priv-y* (F. past part. *privé*, from L. *privatus*). L. *-it-us* is another past participle suffix seen in *definite*, etc.: in *recondite*, *opposite*, etc., it is *-it-us*. In *dissol-ute* we have *-u-t-us* (p.p. stem of *solv-ere*, "solve," "loosen").

§ 153. The suffix *-esque* (a French spelling) appears in *arabesque*, *burlesque*, *picturesque*, etc.

(a) The Greek suffix *-isk-os* and L. *-isc-us* are sparingly found: the latter becomes in Italian *-esco*, and this is the original (via French) of our *-esque* words.

§ 154. The Greek suffix *-ic* is common in certain classes of words; it has been discussed under noun suffixes, § 128c.

§ 155. For the prefixes (native and foreign) see §§ 196-199.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VERB.

(a) Classification.

§ 156. The Verb makes an assertion: it expresses state or action; *e.g.*—

He *was* being beaten. Why *do* you come?
I *saw* her.

(a) The presence of a verb is absolutely necessary in a sentence (see § 91): hence the Latins called it *verb-um*, i.e. "the word"; whence French *verbe*, English *verb*.

(b) Certain forms and combinations closely connected with verbs have not the power of making an assertion; these are the verb-nouns and verb-adjectives (Infinitives, Participles, etc.), grouped together as the "Verb Infinitive": the true verbal forms constitute the Verb Finite.

§ 157. Every Verb is either—

(i) Transitive; that is to say, it indicates an action which is exercised directly upon some object; *e.g.*—

He *loves* his father; I *saw* him;

where *loves*, *saw* are transitive, and *father*, *him* are the direct objects: or

(ii) Intransitive; that is to say, it indicates an action (state, etc.), which is not so exercised; *e.g.*—

The man *falls*; The dog *barks*; We *live*.

(a) Transitive is from F. *transitif*, L. *transitiv-us* = "capable of passing over," from *transire*, "to go across": the prefix *in-* means "not."

(b) By the help of the verb *to be* we can write a sentence containing a transitive verb in such a way that what was formerly the grammatical object becomes the grammatical subject; thus we may say

John beats *her*, or *She* is beaten (by John).

In the former sentence the construction is called *active*; in the latter the words *is beaten* are taken together as forming a passive construction of the verb *beat*.

(c) Transitive verbs often take an indirect object as well as a direct one: § 228.

(d) Many intransitive verbs are verbs of incomplete predication (see § 231); every passive construction furnishes an example of this, as it consists of some form of the verb of incomplete predication *be* + a predicative adjective [past participle].

(e) Many transitive verbs are also used as verbs of incomplete predication: they require in the active construction besides their regular direct object a complementary or "facticitive" predicate which is either noun or adjective; they retain this complementary predicate in the passive (see § 230).

(f) Several verbs are used in conjunction with the non-assertive parts of other verbs to form compound expressions regarded as one verb: e.g. he *will* go, I *was* hoping, etc.: verbs so used are called *Auxiliaries* (L. *auxilium*, "help").

(g) The name *neuter* is applied by some grammarians to intransitive verbs of incomplete predication; others use it as merely equivalent to intransitive.

(h) The term *reflexive* is applied to some verbs where the grammatical object and subject denote the same person or thing: e.g. *he* washes *himself*; *he* sat *him* down.

(i) The term *impersonal* is given to those verbs whose subject is the pronoun *it* used in an indefinite sense, e.g. "*it* seems to me."

This use is common with all the natural phenomena of weather, etc. *It* snows, rains, hails, lightens, thaws, freezes, etc.

The forms *methinks*, *me seems* are impersonal verbs, the *me* being the indirect object (dative: § 130g).

(b) Inflection and Conjugation.

§ 158. The Finite Verb may be inflected to mark person and number, tense, mood: the Verb Infinite has inflections to mark noun and adjective forms.

§ 159. (i) **Number.**—When the subject of the finite verb is in the singular, the verb is said to be singular: when plural, plural.

(ii) **Person.** When the subject of the verb is *I* or *we* or their equivalent, the verb is said to be in the first person; e.g.—

I love—*I*, who *am* rich, *can* afford it—*We eat*

When the subject is *thou* or *you* or their equivalent, the verb is in the second person; e.g.—

Thou hast delivered—*You have* loved—*You who are* free *may* rejoice—*Go away* [subject “*you*” or “*thou*” understood].

In other cases—i.e. when the subject is *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, or their equivalents—the third person is used; e.g.—

He loves money—*To eat is* necessary—*Those who love* money *are* sometimes avaricious.

(a) Notice that in commands, etc., the subject [*you*, *thou*] is generally not named: it is the person spoken to.

(b) *You* being a plural form, we must always use the plural form of the verb with it, though it is often used for one person only: see § 130.

§ 160. The only inflexion of person in use with most verbs is the suffix *s* seen in the third person singular present indicative; e.g. *he want-s*.

(a) The true second person singular form has the inflexion *-est*, *-st*—e.g. *thou want-est*, *wanted-st*: but the form is rarely used now, except as an archaism (in the language of poetry, of prayer) and in some dialects. The third person singular has an archaic form in *-eth*: *he think-eth*.

(b) We shall see traces of other forms of personal inflexion in some of the “anomalous” verbs: § 176.

(c) The inflexions of person and number have suffered the regular gradual weakening and levelling in M.E., and decay in modern times (§ 6): thus the uninflected (*I*) *fall* is the descendant of M.E. *fall-e* (final *e* sounded), and O.E. *fall-e*, which stands for still older, *fall-u*, *fall-o*.

* (d) Compare—

	O.E.	Mid.E.	Mod.E.
Sing. 1. feall-u		fall-e	fall
2. feall-est		fall-est	fall(e)st: practically obsolete
3. feall-ep		fall-eth	fall-s
Plur. feall-ap		{ fall-eth and fall-e(n)	fall

The modern plur. *fall* comes from the Mercian or Midland form of O.E. and Mid.E. In Mid.E. three chief dialects are recognised: the Southern formed its pres. indic. plur. in *-th*, being the child of the West Saxon (the "classic"): the Midland generally had the same part in *-en*, often shortened to *-e*: the Northern had *-es*, *-s*, but not unfrequently drops the inflexion entirely.

* (e) The inflexions of persons are believed to have originated in demonstrative or pronominal roots, but the matter is very obscure; thus in *love-th*, *ama-t*, *te-r(t)* the flexion is (probably) the same as the root of *th-e* (*that*, etc.), *-te* (in *iste*), *to*, etc.

* (f) In the second person singular, *-est* (as in *bind-est*, etc.), is a compound which originated in early Anglo-Saxon times; the earlier form is *-is*, *-es* (cp. *ama-s*, *reg-is*, etc.), as in *bind-is*, *bind-es*; this becomes *bindes-bu* by the conjunction of *bindes* + *bu* [= "thou"], whence *bindesþ* and then *bindest*; cp. Ger. (*e*)*st* [*bindest*, *liebst*, etc.], which similarly stands for *-is* + *du*. The *-(s)t* in *canst*, *shalt*, and other preterite-present forms, is however of different origin, see § 177b.

§ 161. Tense denotes primarily the time to which the assertion denoted by the verb refers:—

(i) The Present tense is the simple form of the verb without flexion: it represents the action (or condition) as now going on or existing: *I love*, *you sing*.

(ii) The Past (or Preterite) is formed by inflexion: it shows that the action or condition is a past one: compare *I sing* and *I sang*; *I love* and *I loved*.

§ 162. The only inflexional suffix of tense is the *ed* (*-d, -t*) of the preterite; as we see, however, from the above example (*sing, sang*), inflected preterites may be formed by vowel-change ["strong" verbs, § 167].

(a) *Tense* = F. *temps*, L. *tempus*, "time."

(b) The preterite (weak or strong) has no longer any inflexions of person or number, save in the rarely used 2nd person singular, which in weak verbs has preserved the O.E. *-est* (*-es, -is*, § 160), and adapted the same ending to strong ones. In strong verbs the 2nd singular pret. and the pret. plur. frequently exhibited a vowel which differed from the 1st and 3rd sing. pret., but Modern English has retained only one stem throughout (§ 169c). The plural preterite (both strong and weak) ended in O.E. in *-on* reduced to *-en* and *e* in M.E., and banished entirely from Modern English.

* (c) The older forms are—

O.E.			M.E.	
Pret. sing.	1 sang	luf-ode	song	lov-ede
	2 sang-e	luf-odest	sung-e	lov-edest
	3 sang	luf-ode	song	lov-ede
PL.	sung-on	luf-odon	{ sung-e(n), and song-e(n)	{ lov-eden, and loved
Cp. the modern German forms.				

§ 163. Mood. The way in which the assertion conveyed by the verb is conceived may be indicated by its form.

(a) The Indicative Mood is used for mere statement, direct question, etc.; e.g.—

I was not happy. Are you coming?

(b) The Subjunctive Mood is sometimes used for possibility, contingency, etc.; it is rarely found except in dependent clauses; e.g.—

I would do it, if I were you.

The use of the distinctive subjunctive form is very limited, its place having been taken by the indicative, and its function performed by combination with auxiliaries; see further in §§ 232-5.

§ 164. The only distinction between subjunctive form and indicative in Mod.E. is to be found in the third person singular present [*he love-s* (indic.), *if he love* (subj.)], and in the pret. of the verb *to be*.

(a) The subj. (or rather optative) and indic. forms became confused early in the history of the language. The subj. present and preterite (weak or strong) ended in *-e* throughout the singular, and *-en* throughout the plural, but the latter in the preterite often gave way to the *-on* of the indicative. In M.E. the subj. and indic. pres. show no difference, both ending in *-e* or *-en*, and the weak preterites indic. and subj. are practically identical, the *-st* of the 2nd pers. sing. often invading the subjunctive; the strong preterite subj. in O.E. has the stem of the 2nd pers. sing. pret. indic. [§ 162*b*], and this distinction is (sometimes) kept up in M.E.

(b) Besides those mentioned above there are traces of old subjunctive forms in some "anomalous" verbs, see § 177*d*.

§ 165. The Imperative Mood has the same form as the simple verb; e.g.—

go ! run away ; let me alone.

It expresses command, entreaty, and the like.

* (a) The history of its form may be easily seen from the following:—

<i>O. E.</i>		<i>Mid. E.</i>		<i>Mod. E.</i>
bind	lufa	bind	lov-e	<i>unin- flected</i> love: bind
bindaþ	lufiaþ*	{ bindeth	{ lov-eth	
		{ binde	{ lov-e	

§ 166. The Verb Infinitive contains

(i) The Infinitive, which is the simple form of the verb, very often preceded by *to*; it is a noun, but partakes of the nature of a verb inasmuch as it may have a direct object and may be limited by an adverb; e.g.—

I like to see my friends often. I will fetch him.

(a) The infinitive without *to* (the simple infinitive) and the infinitive with *to* (gerundial infinitive) represent originally distinct forms in O.E. The simple form is the O.E. infinitive, e.g. *bindan*, "the act of binding": the *to* form represents the old gerund, a dative of the above governed by the preposition, e.g. *to bindanne*, "to bind," in such a phrase as "Here is a book to bind." The levelling of the inflexions in M.E. reduced the verbal form to the same state (*binden, binde*), and *to* then came to be used as the mere sign of the infinitive. But the gerundial force of the *to* form remains clearly in such expressions as "a house *to let*," "knives *to grind*," "not the right thing *to do*," etc.

(ii) The Verb-Noun in *-ing*, similarly used; e.g.—

I like *seeing* my friends. *Hunting* is healthy.

(iii) The present participle, which is a verb-adjective; e.g.—

He is *dying*. He is *helping* his mother.

It is formed just as the verb-noun is by adding *-ing* to the verb, but it must not be confused with it.

(b) The forms in *-ing* are as we see (i) verbal noun [gerund], (ii) verb-adjective (present participle). The former was represented in O.E. by abstract nouns formed from verbal roots in *-ung* and *-ing*: the number of these increased in Middle English—the termination was then only *-ing*—especially when the present participial form in *-inde* (older *-ende*) had become altered by its influence into *inge*, and then (with decay of flexion) *ing*: when once these two originally distinct forms, the verb noun and the present participle, fell together, there was nothing to hinder the formation of the verb noun from any verb as a regular part of conjugation.

(c) Hence in such a phrase as "I kept him from *breaking* his word," the four last words originate from a construction such as "from the breaking of his word," where *breaking* is an ordinary abstract noun.

(d) Phrases such as "to go *a-fishing*," "*a-hunting*," etc., preserve this *-ing* noun governed by a preposition, *a-* standing for *on*.

(iv) The past participle, also a verb adjective; e.g.—

This is *broken*. He has *broken* it.

This is *wanted*. He has not *wanted* this.

(e) The various forms discussed in this section are in their older stages:—

<i>O.E.</i>			<i>M.E.</i>	
Infin.	bindan	lufian	binde(n)	love(n)
Gerund.	to bindanne	to lufiganne	binde(n)	love(n)
Pres. Part.	bindende	lufigende	bindene	lovene
Past Part.	gebunden	gelufod	bindinge	lovinge
Verb-Noun	[bindung]	[lufigung]	(i)bounde(n)	(i)loved
			binding	loving

§ 167. The following are all the simple forms of the English verb, uninflected as well as inflected—

Verb Finite.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
<i>Sing.</i>	1. I want,	break	if I want, break
	2. thou want-est,	break-est	if thou want, break
	3. he want-s,	break-s	if he want, break
<i>Plural.</i> (all persons)	{ want,	break	want, break.

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. } want, break.
Plur. }

PRETERITE TENSE.

<i>Sing.</i>	1. I want-ed,	broke	if I wanted, broke
	2. thou want-ed-st, brok-est		if thou wanted, broke
	3. he want-ed,	broke	if he wanted, broke
<i>Plural.</i> (all persons)	{ want-ed,	broke	wanted, broke.

Verb Infinite.

INFINITIVE; (to) want, break.	PRESENT PARTICIPLE: want-ing, break-ing.
GERUND or VERB NOUN: want-ing, break-ing.	PAST PARTICIPLE: want-ed, brok-en.

Observe that strong and weak verbs are conjugated exactly alike, except as far as the formation of preterite and past participle are concerned.

Certain **spelling changes** which take place in inflexion should be noticed :—

(i) A mute *e* terminating the simple form of the verb disappears before another vowel, e.g. *lov-ed, lov-ing*. [It is preserved, however, in a few cases where ambiguity would arise from its omission : e.g. *singeing*.]

(ii) After sibilants the 3rd sing. pres. has the full inflexion *-es* sounded as a distinct syllable : he *toss-es, brush-es, touch-es*.

(iii) *y*, after a consonant, is written *-ie-* before *-d, -s—den-y, den-ied, den-ies*—but *play-s, play-ed*.

(iv) The combination *-ayed* is written *-aid* in some verbs, e.g. *lay, laid; pay, paid*.

(v) Final consonant preceded by an accented short vowel is doubled before the *e* or *i* in an inflexion ; e.g. *forgot-t-en, pet-t-ing, expel-l-ed*. The same rule is generally observed with a single *-l*, even after an unaccented vowel ; e.g. *level-l-ed*.

§ 168. The past participle and the preterite are formed in one of two ways, according as the verb is **weak** or **strong**.

(i) A **Weak Verb** is one which forms its preterite by adding *-ed (-d, -t)* ; its past participle is identical with the preterite.

(I) *want, (I) want-ed, (I have) want-ed*.

(ii) A **Strong Verb** is one which forms its preterite without suffix but with vowel-change (called "gradation," § 62) ; its past participle has either the suffix in *-en*, or no suffix at all. There is often vowel-change in the past participle ; e.g.—

(I) *speak, (I) spoke, (I have) spok-en.*
(I) *sing, (I) sang, (I have) sung.*

§ 169. The following is a fairly complete list of the **Strong Verbs**. It must be noticed that while new verbs are now always conjugated as weak, and new formations on the strong model have long ceased to be made, many verbs once strong have taken weak forms.

[Weak forms are printed in this list in italics. The order is alphabetical, except that compounds, where given, are put under the simple verb. A few archaic forms are given, marked *.]

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
abide	abode	abode
bear	bore	born, borne
forbear	forbore	forborne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
bid	bade, bid	bidden
forbid	forbade	forbidden
bind	bound	bound, bounden *
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
carve	<i>carved</i>	<i>carved</i> , carven *
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	clove	cloven
	<i>cleft</i>	<i>cleft</i>
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew	
	<i>crowed</i>	<i>crowed</i>
dig	dug	dug
	<i>digged</i>	<i>digged</i>
do	<i>did</i>	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate, eat	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
for-get	forgot	forgotten
give	gave	given
go	[<i>went</i>]	gone
grind	ground	ground

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
	<i>hanged</i>	<i>hanged</i>
hew	<i>hewed</i>	hewn
hide	hid	hidden, hid
hold	held	held
behold	beheld	beheld
know	knew	known
lade		laden
	<i>laded</i>	
lie	lay	lain
melt		molten *
	<i>melted</i>	<i>melted</i>
mow		mown
	<i>mowed</i>	<i>mowed</i>
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive		riven
	<i>rived</i>	
run	ran	run
saw		sawn
	<i>sawed</i>	<i>sawed</i>
see	saw	seen
seethe		sodden
	<i>seethed</i>	<i>seethed</i>
sew		sewn
	<i>sewed</i>	<i>sewed</i>
shake	shook	shaken
shape		shapen *
	<i>shaped</i>	<i>shaped</i>
shave		shaven *
	<i>shaved</i>	<i>shaved</i>
shear	shore	shorn
	<i>sheared</i>	<i>sheared</i>
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
show, shew	<i>showed, shewed</i>	shown, shewn
shrink	shrank	shrunken, shrunken *

THE VERB.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
sow		sown
	<i>sowed</i>	<i>sowed</i>
speak	spoke	spoken
bespeak	bespoke	bespoke, bespoken
spin	span, spun	spun
spit	spat	spat
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strew		strewn
	<i>strewed</i>	<i>strewed</i>
swear	swore	sworn
swell		swollen
	<i>swelled</i>	<i>swelled</i>
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve	thriven
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden
wake (<i>and</i> awake)	woke	woke
	<i>waked</i>	<i>waked</i>
wear	wore	worn

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Pret.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

We may add here—

burst	burst	burst
let	let	let

classed as strong by their origin, though now all trace of vowel-change has disappeared, levelling the forms with such as those of *thrust*, *hit*: see § 174 (iv).

Remarks on the Strong Verbs.

(a) From the oldest stage of the language and the cognate languages, we see that a number of these verbs formed their preterite by *reduplication*; but there is nothing to distinguish these now from the ordinary strong verbs, except in the case of *hight* [= was called], O.E. *heht*, where the reduplicated *h* is seen. Among other verbs originally of this class (some of which are now weak) are *blow*, *know*, *flow*, *grow*, *row*, *sow*; *sleep*, *sweep*, *weep*; *fall*, *hold*, *leap*, *hew*, *let* ["permit"].

* [Such a word as O.E. *haldan*, *healdan* ("hold"), is typical of this conjugation; we find its pret. in O.E. as *hēold*, but the Gothic *haihald* shows the reduplication clearly: so *hight*, O.E. *hēt* and *heht* from *hātan* = Gothic *hai-hait*, while examples preserving traces of reduplication fairly clearly in O.E. are *leole* (*lācan*, "jump"), *reord* (*rādan*, "counsel," "rede").]

* (b) Of the other strong verbs six different classes of gradations were originally to be distinguished; verbs of each class, however, freely passed into others, and moreover many stems have quite disappeared: hence the distinctions between these six "conjugations" (or seven, if we include the reduplicated verbs above) are no longer clear. Typical examples in Modern English are given under gradation in § 61.

(c) In the older stages of the language all strong verbs except the sixth class ["shake" class] and the reduplicating verbs exhibited a difference of stem between the 1st pers. sing. pret. and the plural, so that many of them had four stems [§ 61]: Modern English has always levelled this distinction, generally (but not always) retaining

the singular form throughout; but it is to this that we may attribute the use (especially by uneducated persons) of such preterites as *begun*, *drunk*, *sung*, *shrunk*, where the book-language only allows *began*, *drank*, *sang*, *shrank*, retaining the other as the past participle. Further, there is a tendency to reduce the stems to two (as may be seen in the alphabetical list above), and this is aided by the process described above, and by the levelling of the pret. and p.p. stems through the adoption of the one or the other for both offices.

* (d) The O.E. equivalents of typical verbs of each class are—

(1) <i>rīdan</i>	<i>rād</i>	pl. <i>ridon</i>	<i>riden</i>
(2) <i>bēodan</i>	<i>bēad</i>	pl. <i>budon</i>	<i>boden</i>
(3) <i>drincan</i>	<i>dranc</i>	pl. <i>druncon</i>	<i>druncen</i>
(4) <i>stelan</i>	<i>stæl</i>	pl. <i>stælon</i>	<i>stolen</i>
(5) <i>tredan</i>	<i>træd</i>	pl. <i>trædon</i>	<i>treden</i>
(6) <i>faran</i>	<i>fōr</i>	pl. <i>fōron</i>	<i>faren</i>

Hence we see that in (1) and (3) the three stems are still kept, but sing. and plur. pret. are levelled under sing.; in the others the same levelling has taken place. In (2), (4), and (5) four stems have been reduced to two. M.E. occupies a position midway between Med. Eng. and O.E. in this respect.

Cp. German *reiten*, *bieten*, *trinken*, *stehlen*, *treten*, *fahren*.

§ 170. Strong verbs which have become weak frequently preserve some form of their older conjugation which is restricted to special purposes.

In the following, for instance, the strong past participle is used as a mere adjective (and that generally in certain phrases only), while the weak form is ordinarily employed:—

<i>cloven</i> , as in <i>cloven</i> hoof :	usual p.p. of <i>cleave</i> being	<i>cleft</i>
<i>graven</i> , „ <i>graven</i> image :	„ (en)grave „	<i>graved</i>
<i>hewn</i> , „ <i>rough-hewn</i> :	„ <i>hero</i> „	<i>hewed</i>
<i>laden</i> , „ <i>heavy-laden</i> :	„ { <i>lade</i> <i>load</i> „	<i>loaded</i>
<i>-lorn</i> , „ <i>forlorn</i> :	„ <i>lose</i> „	<i>lost</i>
<i>molten</i> , „ <i>molten</i> metal :	„ <i>melt</i> „	<i>molten</i>
<i>-sodden</i> , „ <i>sodden</i> turf :	„ <i>seethe</i> „	<i>seethed</i>
<i>shaven</i> , „ <i>smooth-shaven</i> :	„ <i>shave</i> „	<i>shaved</i>
<i>shapen</i> , „ <i>mis-shapen</i> :	„ <i>shape</i> „	<i>shaped</i>

(a) Between *mown* and *mowed*, *shorn* and *sheared*, *sown* and *sown*, *swollen* and *swelled* there is a somewhat similar but perhaps not so clearly marked difference of usage.

(6) In a few cases a similar distinction is preserved between variant forms of a strong past participle, the longer (and older) one being restricted to specific phrases and generally used merely as an adjective. Examples are—

a *drunken* man; he is (or has) *drunk*.
 I am *beholden* to you; I have *beheld* him.
 it is your *bounden* duty; I am *bound* to do it.
 his *sunken* (or *sunk*) eyes; a *sunken* rock; he has *sunk*.
 his *shrunken* (or *shrunk*) frame; his frame was *shrunk*.
 he was conscience-*stricken*; he was *struck*.
 a down-*trodden* people; he has *trod* (or *trodden*) it down.

§ 171. Of strong verbs which have become weak there are several, besides those already mentioned in § 170, which preserve traces of their origin either by retaining a mixture of each conjugation, or by keeping parallel weak and strong forms; thus *crow* [O.E. *crāwan*, redupl. verb], makes pret. *crew* or *crowed*, past part. *crowed*: others may be seen in the italicised words in the alphabetical list (see however § 172). Some other verbs originally strong only retain strong forms as archaisms, or show us that they were once strong verbs by giving us derivatives from gradational stems: thus *help*, archaic p. p. *holpen*—*bake*, *baken*—*lose*, *lorn* (as in *forlorn*)—*wax*, *waxen*—*wash*, (un)*washen*—*climb*, archaic pret. *clomb*.

(a) The verb *hang* represents two forms, one strong and intransitive, the other weak and transitive; hence we rightly get parallel strong and weak forms, but Modern English does not preserve the grammatical distinction; the weak forms (*hanged*) are scarcely used except for the action of suspending by the neck, and not always then. There was originally a similar grammatical distinction between the two verbs which have given us *wake*, *woke*, and *wake*, *waked*; a tendency to a similar confusion is heard in the speech of uneducated people with regard to *sit* and *set*, though here the distinct forms are clearly marked [§ 188].

(6) Other forms once strong have now been supplanted by weak ones without leaving any trace of the old conjugation in the modern language; such as *bow*, *brew*, *burn*, *creep*, *drad*, *delve*, *fare*, *flow*, *fret* (by origin a compound of *eat*), *laugh*, *leap*, *lie* [to tell a falsehood], *mete*, *rice*, *row*, *shove*, *slip*, *sit*, *sleep*, *wade*, *weigh*, *wreak*, *writhe*.

§ 172. A very few verbs once weak have taken strong forms. *Wear* is one of these; it possibly owes *wore* and *worn* (for *wearied*) to analogy with *bear*, *bore*, *born*, and *tear*, *tore*, *torn*. *Hide* was also originally weak.

§ 173. The verbs in the alphabetical list terminating with a dental (-*d*, -*t*), and having no past participial -*en*, should be carefully learned, because there is often little in their form to distinguish them to the student only acquainted with Modern English from the contracted weak verbs enumerated below; they are only classed as strong and weak owing to their etymology. Thus *burst*, *let* ("allow"), are strong; but *thrust*, *let* ("hinder," a legal term), are weak.

* (a) *burst* is in O.E. *berstan*, *berst*, *burston*, *borsten*; *let* (allow) is in O.E. *lætan*, *lēt*, *lēton*, *læten*. Cf. Ger. *bersten* and *lassen*; but *thrust* stands for M.E. *thrusten*, pret. *thruste*; *hit*, for *hitten*, *hitte*; and *let* (hinder), for *lettan*, *lette*.

§ 174. In the Weak Verbs the departures from the regular type (e.g. *want*, *wanted*) are:—

(i) Merely orthographic changes: e.g. *pet*, *pet-t-ed*, etc.; these have been pointed out, § 167.

(ii) After *l*, *n*, the sound *d* easily becomes *t*, and is often so written; e.g.—

dwell	pret. and past part. dwelt
smell	smelt or smelled
spell	spelt or spelled
spill	spilt or spilled
burn	burnt or burned
learn	learnt or learned
pen (to confine)	pent or penned
but pen (to use a pen, write)	penned

(iii) Some verbs ending in -ld, -nd, have contracted forms in -lt, -nt instead of (or as well as) -lded, -nded; e.g.—

pres. bend	pret. and past part. bent	{ (bended is found as adj.)
blend	blent or blended	
lend	lent	
rend	rent	
send	sent	
spend	spent	
wend	went or wended	
build	built	
gild	gilt or gilded	
so also gird	girt or girded	

went is used to supply a past tense for the verb *go*.

(iv) Some verbs ending in d, t, exhibit no change of form owing to a similar contraction (-d for -ded, -t for -ted); such are

pres. cast	pret. and past part. cast
cost	cost
cut	cut
hit	hit
hurt	hurt
knit	knit
let	let
put	put
set	set
shut	shut
slit	slit
split	split
sweat	sweat and sweated
thrust	thrust
wet	wetted, sometimes wet
whet	whetted, sometimes whet
rid	rid
shed	shed
shred	shred
spread	spread

We may group with these others ending in *d*, *t*, which contract the suffix in a similar way, at the same time shortening the vowel of the stem :—

pres. bleed	pret. and past part. bled
breed	bred
feed	fed
lead	led
light	lit and lighted
meet	met
read	read
speed	sped

(v) Some have not the same vowel sound in pres. as they have in pret. and perfect participle. They are, however, easily distinguished from strong verbs by the inflexive *-d*, *-t*.

(1) long vowel in present: shortened in pret. and perf. participle with contracted suffix :—

pres. bereave	pret. and past part. bereft and bereaved
creep	crept
deal	dealt
dream	dreamt and dreamed
feel	felt
flee	fled
keep	kept
kneel	knelt
lean	leant
leap	leapt
leave	left
mean	meant
say	said
shoe	shod
sleep	slept
sweep	swept
weep	wept

(2) different vowels with contracted suffix :—

pres. beseech	pret. and past part. besought
bring	brought
buy	bought
catch	caught
seek	sought
sell	sold
teach	taught
tell	told
think	thought

(vi) Some other irregularities are these :—

have has its pret. tense and perf. participle contracted to *had*.

(a) The indic. pres. of *have* is *I have, thou hast, he has*, plur. *have*. Subj. pres. 1, 2, 3, sing. and plur. *have*.

make has similarly *made* contracted for *makel*.

(the final *-e* serves merely to denote the length of the *a*).
clothe makes *cloth-ed* and *clad*.

work has *work-ed* and *wrought* (§ 65).

(b) In the older stages of the language there was a clear distinction of conjugation between verbs which added the suffix of inflexion directly to the root, and those which inserted a connective vowel before it, thus making another syllable: e.g. *herē* (*hear*) has in M.E. pret. *herd-ē* (2 syll.), while *love* has pret. *lov-ed-e* (3 syll.): Modern English has levelled these by dropping (to the ear, not always in spelling) the connecting vowel wherever possible: thus *heard*, *loved* have each one syllable only: where the *-ed* is a separate syllable, as in *want-ed*, it is because no elision is possible without the disappearance of the inflexive *d*; this, however, often happens—cp. *blend-ed* and *blent*, *spent*, etc., above. It is to be observed therefore that *blent*, *heard*, *thought*, have not elided a medial syllable, while *loved*, *made*, etc., have: where we find a longer and a shorter form ending in a dental (*blended*, *blent*) the former, contrary to the usual principle in such matters, is the newer formation.

* (c) The O.E. weak conjugations exhibit three clearly marked types (besides § 175 below)—

- (1) *hier-an, hier-de, hier-ed* ("hear")
- (2) *wen-nan, wen-ede, wen-ed* ("wean")
- (3) *luf-ian, luf-ode, luf-od* ("love")

of which (2) and (3) fall together in M.E., and all three are levelled (where possible) in Modern English; and further the distinction between pret. and past participle disappears with the dropping of the final *e* from the former.

§ 175. The difference of vowel in verbs such as *sell—sold, teach—taught* (and the others in § 174 (v. 2) above), is not due to gradation: the original vowel sound in its modern form remains in the pret. and past participle, but shows the result of *mutation* in the infinitive, present, etc., owing to the effect of a now vanished *i* which followed the root.

* (a) Thus *seek—sought—sought* result from M.E. *seeken—soghte—soght*, which result from O.E. *secean—söhte—söht*, in which the infinitive stands for *söc- + ian* (§ 63).

Cp. Ger. *brennen* (for *brann-ian*), pret. *brann-te*, etc.

MINOR CONJUGATIONS.

§ 176. The verb *to be* (this shows three different roots)—

Indic. Pres.: sing. *am, art, is*; plur. *are*.

Subj. Pres.: *be* (throughout).

Indic. Pret.: sing. *was, wast, was*; plur. *were*.

Subj. Pret.: *were* (throughout).

Imperative: *be*. Infinitive: (to) *be*. Part. Pres.: *being*.

Part. Past: *been*.

The form *be* is sometimes found as an archaic pres. indicative; *wert* as 2nd sing. pret.

* (a) *-mi* verbs. The Indo-Germanic verb had its first person sing. pres. indic. in *-ā* or *-mi*; the latter has left no trace in Modern English except in the word *a-m*: cp. L. *am-o* and *su-m*, Gk. *λ-vo* and *ει-ψι*; and see § 160.

(b) The three roots in the conjugation of this verb are—

(1) *es*: hence

am, O.E. *com* for hypothetical *es-mi*, in which the *m* is probably the remnant of first personal pronoun (i.e. of root seen in Eng. *me*): cp. L. *s-um* [= hypothetical *es(u)mi*], Gk. *ei-μi*.

are, O.E. (Northumbrian) *ar-on*, a Scandinavian form standing for *es-on*. The O.E. form is *sin-don* = *es-in-d-on*, in which the *-on* is an O.E. addition (§ 162*b*), the forms *sin-d*, *sin-t* being also found. Cp. with these L. *s-unt* and Gk. *ἐσ-οντ-αι*, and the Modern Ger. *s-ind*.

art is also a Northern form: it is older *arð* and *earð*, where the suffix is equivalent to the second person pron. *thou*: see § 160*e*.

is shows a weakened form of the same stem, without any suffix of flexion: cp. Gk. *ἐσ-τι*, L. *es-t*, and Modern Ger. *is-t*, in each of which the dental represents the ending of the third person: see § 160*c*.

(2) *bheu*:

hence *be*, *being*, *been* (strong contracted past part.: cp. *blown*, etc.). The root is cognate with that of L. *fu-i*, Gk. *φύ-ειν*, and Modern Ger. *bi-n* [where the *-n* is of the same origin as the *-m* of *a-m*, above], and apparently means "grow." *Be* was conjugated throughout the present indicative and subjunctive in O.E.: hence the subjunctive forms in modern English, and the dialectic *I be*, *thou beest*, etc.

(3) *wes*:

hence *was*, *wert*, *were*. *Was* is the representative of a strong preterite (O.E. *wæs*), regularly formed by gradation from the infinitive *wesan* [cp. Ger. (ge)-*wesen*, *war*]: hence it showed a different stem in the second person sing. and throughout the plural (§ 169*d*), having for the former *wære*, and for the latter *wæron*; *wæron* becomes *were* in the usual way. The second singular *was-t* is a modern formation, apparently made on the analogy of other second persons singular (§ 160*f*) by adding *-st*, and then simplifying the two *s*'s by dropping one. In *wert* (which seems intended to be used as a distinctive subjunctive form) the subjunctive stem (which in strong verbs was always that of the preterite plural) has had an inflexive *t* added to it, perhaps through analogy with the *t* of *ar-t*. [For the change of *s* to *r* in *was*—*were* see § 52*a*].

§ 177. Strong-weak (PRETERITE-PRESENT) Verbs.

Can, may, shall, will have no final *s* in the third person sing. present indicative, so that in form they resemble strong preterites, which is what in fact they originally were; but they acquired the sense of presents, and so new weak preterites were formed. They are commonly used as auxiliaries of mood and tense, and are defective in infinitive and participles. The forms they have are—

PRESENT.

<i>Sing.</i> 1.	I can	may	shall	will
2.	thou canst	may(e)st	shal-t	wil-t
3.	he <i>can</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>shall</i>	<i>will</i>
<i>Plur.</i> 1, 2, 3.	can	may	shall	will

PRETERITE.

<i>Sing.</i> 1, 3 and } <i>Plur.</i> 1, 2, 3. }	could	might	should	would
2nd <i>Sing.</i>	could(e)st	might(e)st	should(e)st	would(e)st

(a) For the use of preterites with present signification, cp. the L. *memini, novi, coepi, odi*, the Gk. οἶδα, δέδοικα, ἔοικα, and the Ger. words cognate with the Eng. preterite-presents, viz. *kann, mag, soll, will*.

(b) The *-t* in *shal-t, wil-t* is the old strong second person pret. inflexion: cp. Ger. *soll-t* (beside *soll-st*). *May-s-t, can-s-t* have taken the compound suffix in conformity with the bulk of English verbs (§ 160f).

* (c) Shall [a strong preterite of the same conjugation as *steal*, § 160d] seems to have meant originally "I have incurred a liability, I have owed": cp. the employment of cognate Ger. *soll* and the meaning of *Schuld* (debt, duty), *schuld-ig*. The O.E. form is *seal* (for *seal*), whence weak preterite *seolde* (for *seolde, sealde*), whence *should*.

* (d) *Will* is a strong preterite *subjunctive*, early used indicatively, of a *-mi* verb [§ 176a: cp. the cognates Gk. *βούλομαι*; L. *vol-o*, *rel-in-*—root meaning “desire”]; hence the stem shows mutation. This does not appear in the weak preterite *would*, representing O.E. *wol-de* [cp. Ger. *will*, *woll-te*: inf. *wollen*].

There is a pres. part. (rarely found) in O.E. to which the modern *will-ing* now only used as an adjective corresponds. There was a negative form in O.E. made by prefixing *ne*, which thus produced *willan*, *nyllan*: cp. L. *nolo* = *ne* + *volo*; from this we have our phrase *willy-nilly* = *will I*, *will I*, or *will he*, *will he*, i.e. “whether he (or I) *will* or *won’t*.” From vb. *will*, as above, comes the substantive *will*, and thence the weak verb *will*, which is quite regular, and therefore has 3rd sing. pres. *he will-s*, pret. and part. *willed* [cp. Ger. *Will-e*].

* (e) *Can* [a strong preterite of the same conjugation as *drink*, § 169d] comes from a root meaning to know; its weak preterite *could* owes its *l* (never pronounced) to the influence of the spelling of *should* and *would*, in which, as we have seen, the *l* is etymological, and once represented a sound [contrast Ger. *konn-te* with *woll-te*, *soll-te*]: thus *could* would be better written *coud*, the M.E. form being *coude* for O.E. *cūpe*. In the last word the lengthening of the vowel is due to the disappearance of the nasal after it, *cūpe* standing for a hypothetical *cunpe*, which shows the stem and formation clearly. The infinitive in O.E. appears as *cunnan*, whence the modern adjective (originally a pres. part.) *cunn-ing*. [The noun *cunning* is practically the same, but comes into English from Norse.] The past part. was *cūð* [= “known”], whence our *un-couth*, “unknown,” and so “odd.”

* (f) *May* [a strong preterite of the same conjugation as *tread*, § 169] meant originally “I have power”: it has dropped its final guttural in Modern English, standing for O.E. *mæg* with preterite *meahte* [i.e. *mag- + te*] and *mikte*, whence M.E. *mighte* and Modern *might*, in which (as in so many other cases) the guttural is preserved in the spelling but not in the sound; cp. Ger. *mag*, *mochte*.

The root (its Teut. form is *magh*, corresponding to classic *mag*), appears in Gk. *μέγας*, L. *mag-nus*, *mai-or*, *mag-ister*, etc., and in many English words, e.g. *might* and *main* [where the former is O.E. sb. *mīht*, *meaht*, cognate with Ger. *Macht*, and the latter stands for O.E. *mæg-en*, *mo-re*, *mo-st* [§ 146c], etc.

§ 178. *Dare* is also an old strong preterite, treated as a present, from which a later weak pret. has been formed; Modern English, however, often treats the verb as entirely weak and regular; thus:—

Pres.: I dare, thou darest and durst, he dare or dares
pl. dare.

Pret: durst (throughout) or dared.

The tendency seems to be to discard *durst* entirely, and to use *dare* in the 3rd sing. pres. only (but not always) before an infinitive without "to" [*i.e.* in a semi-auxiliary manner: thus "he *dare* not do it," or "he *dares* not do it," but "since he *dares* to behave so." In the sense of "to challenge" the regular weak forms are always used: "he *dares* (not *dare*) or *dared* (not *durst*) him to do it."

* (a) **Dare** [by origin a strong preterite of the same class as *drink*, § 160*d*; cp. *can*, above] is in O.E. *dear* (for *dar*) and M.E. *dar*; the weak pret. in O.E. is *dors-te*, whence *durst*; the *-s* is apparently part of the stem which has disappeared in the pret.-present. The same root appears in Gk. *θραύ-ω*s ("bold"), *θραύ-ει* ("be bold") [classic root *dhars*, corresponding to Teutonic root *dars*, § 52. N.B. Modern Ger. *darf* has no etymological connection with this, as the identity of the initial letter proves]. The original meaning of "I dare" seems thus to be "I have emboldened myself," and so "I venture."

§ 179. **Must, ought, are** also Preterite-Presents, but differ from those mentioned above in being survivals of the weak preterites (the final *t* reminds us of this) which are used now as presents; thus they have only one form apiece for all persons and both numbers (except archaic *thou oughtest*, 2nd sing.).

(a) **Ought** represents etymologically the weak preterite of *owe*, itself an old strong preterite used as a present; but *owe* is conjugated regularly now as an ordinary weak verb (*he owes, owed*, etc.), and the words are separated by specialisation of meanings.

* (b) **Owe** [by origin a strong preterite of the "*ride*" class, § 169*d*] is in O.E. *āgan* (inf.) with pret. used as pres. *āh*, "I possess" [hence "I possess another's good," "I am in debt," etc.]; the weak pret. in *āh-te*, whence *ough-t*. The old past participle (strong) *āgen* gives the adjective *own* [§ 190*a*], whence also the verb *own*.

* (c) **Must** represents O.E. *mōste*, a weak preterite formed from the old pret.-pres. *mōt* ["*fare*" class, § 169*d*], meaning "I am able," "I can," "may" [N.B.: *not* etymologically connected with *may*]. The M.E. form of the old pret.-pres. *mōt, moot*, gives us the archaic *mote* in such a phrase as "So mote I die" = "So may I die." Cp. Ger. *muß* [= *mōt*], and *muß-te* [= *mōste*], for the latter of which only our *must* does duty.

E. L.

(d) Owing to the defective conjugation of *must*, *ought*, we are often obliged to indicate the tense by the use of a perfect infinitive depending on one of these words: thus we say, e.g.

He ought to *have done* it.

For similar reasons the uneducated say

(i) he *hadn't ought* to do it; using "ought" as a past participle in a logical but ungrammatical way.

(ii) he *didn't ought* to do it; using as an infinitive the only form of the verb now employed, in defiance of analogy as well as of etymology and standard speech.

Need is used like the preterite-present verbs in the 3rd singular present (though there is no apparent etymological reason for this beyond analogy with them) in semi-auxiliary combinations; e.g. "he *need* not do this," but "he *needs* this," "he *needs* to be better informed."

* (e) *Need* is a weak verb derived from the noun; in O.E. the pret.-pres. *þearf* (Ger. *darf*) was used in the same sense, and has been now entirely supplanted by it; possibly it is due to analogy with this old strong pret. at the time when the forms *tharf* and *need* (M.E. *nede*) were used indifferently that we owe the pseudo-strong 3rd sing. pres., *he need*.

§ 180. Do.

The dual origin of this verb, as given below, is almost universally held by English grammarians. Dr. Murray (see *New Eng. Diet.*, s.v.), however, maintains that in every case *do* is the O.E. *dōn* (not *dugan*).

The verb *do* in modern English represents two distinct verbs: as a rule it is the anomalous verb *do—did—done* (§ 169a), but in "that will *do*," and similar phrases, the *do* is an old strong pret.-pres. meaning "avail."

(a) The O.E. preterite-present verb [*dugan*], pret.-pres. *dēah*, weak pret. *dohste* meaning "avail," "to be worth"—"valere" (cp. cognate Ger. *taug-en*), is not connected with *do*, "to make," "facere" (Ger. *thun*); but owing to the large use of the latter as auxiliary, etc., and to the similarity of form, the descendant of *dugan* has practically been incorporated in it. Thus in "How *do* you *do*," the first is *do—did*, "facere," the second is *do*, "avail," "valere." Similarly in "you *do* very well for me" *do* represents *dugan*, "valere": and so it should therefore in "This *does* very well," but here, if there had been no confusion with the other verb, we should have no inflexion of person [i.e. *do* rather than *does*], since the

word represents an old strong preterite. So too we use *did* and *done* in this sense: e.g. "This *did* very well," "This has *done* very well."

(b) The verb *do* is conjugated as a strong verb: *do-est*, *do-eth* are contracted to *doest*, *doth*; the pret. part. *done* (in which the final *e* is purely a trick of orthography, as in *borne*, *one*) exhibits the usual *-en* of strong verbs reduced to *n* after a vowel: cp. *slai-n*, *drac-n*.

* It is originally a *-mi* verb [§ 176a; cp. its cognate *τι-θη-μι*], and is found in 1st pers. sing. pres. in O.E. (rarely) as *dō-m*; *did* represents O.E. *dyde*.

Conjugation with Auxiliaries, Compound Forms of the Verb, etc.

§ 181. We have not enough tenses formed by inflexion to enable us to express all distinctions of time, etc., by that means; we therefore resort to combinations of the verb we wish to conjugate with other verbs known as auxiliaries (§ 157f): the name "tense" is then given to the whole combination thus formed. We may thus get the following scheme of tenses:—

Present—Simple	<i>I love</i>
„ —Continuous	<i>I am loving</i>
„ —Perfect	<i>I have loved</i>
„ —Perfect Continuous	<i>I have been loving</i>
Past —Simple (Preterite)	<i>I loved</i>
„ —Continuous	<i>I was loving</i>
„ —Perfect	<i>I had loved</i>
„ —Perfect Continuous	<i>I had been loving</i>
Future—Simple	<i>I shall love</i>
„ —Continuous	<i>I shall be loving</i>
„ —Perfect	<i>I shall have loved</i>
„ —Perfect Continuous	<i>I shall have been loving</i>

• § 182. Auxiliaries are similarly used to form the Passive construction (§ 157b) or "voice," and they may also be used to indicate mood. The conjugation of a verb in the simple and chief compound forms is as follows (the third person singular alone is given in the finite verb, except in the imperative which has only second persons):—

§183.	INDICATIVE [MOOD].	SUBJUNCTIVE [MOOD].
[Tense].	Active [Voice].	Passive [Voice].
Present (Simple)	(he) loves	is loved
Present Continuous	is loving	is being loved
(Present) Perfect	has loved	has been loved
(Present) Perfect Continuous	has been loving	. . .
Past Simple (or Preterite)	loved	was loved
Past Continuous	was loving	was being loved
Past Perfect (or Pluperfect)	had loved	had been loved
Past Perfect Continuous	had been loving	. . .
Future (Simple)	will love	will be loved
Future Continuous	will be loving	[will be being loved]
Future Perfect	will have loved	will have been loved
Future Perfect Continuous	will have been loving	. . .

no future tenses in the subjunctive

IMPERATIVE MOOD—Present (Act.) love. (Pass.) be loved
INFINITIVE.

	Active.	Passive.
Present	(to) love	(to) be loved
„ Continuous	„ be loving	„ [be being loved]
Perfect	„ have loved	„ have been loved
„ Continuous	„ have been loving	„

PARTICIPLES.

Present	loving	being loved
Perfect	having loved	loved
„ Continuous	having been loving	having been loved

(a) Other auxiliaries are sometimes employed: *may* sometimes assists to form a present subjunctive; *might*, *should*, *would* past subjunctive; *should*, *would* are often conditional or secondary future. The verb *do* is used (1) with the negative, (2) for forming questions, (3) for emphasis: e.g. "He didn't take it" [*did* . . . *take* = *took*, pret.], "Did he take it?" [*did* he *take*? = *took* he?], "he *did* take it" [more emphatic than "he took"]. The simple forms (except of verbs which may be used as auxiliaries) are now not used in direct questions: thus we may say, "It rains heavily"; but as question, "Does it rain?" or "Is it raining?"

(b) The use of the auxiliaries of futurity is peculiar: we use *shall* in the first person, but *will* in the second and third; in interrogations, however, *shall* is employed in the second person. Thus—

I shall	} see her to-morrow.	shan't I?— <i>i.e.</i> shall I not?
[Thou wilt]		[shalt thou not?]
He will		won't he?— <i>i.e.</i> will he not?
We shall		shan't we?— <i>i.e.</i> shall we not?
You will		shan't you?— <i>i.e.</i> shall you not?
They will		won't they?— <i>i.e.</i> will they not?

But of course *will* and *shall* can be employed not only as mere auxiliaries of tense: we may say—

I will	} see her	} <i>i.e.</i> I intend, I have made up my mind, etc.
You shall		
He shall		
		you must, you are obliged to.
		he must, he is obliged to.

Observe the shade of difference in—

You'll see her to-morrow { (1) sha'n't you—*i.e.* in the natural course
of things, mere futurity.
(2) won't you—*i.e.* you'll take steps to see
her, you won't avoid seeing her.

The following quatrain (given in various grammars) expresses some of the main differences of usage:—

In the first person simply *shall* foretells;
In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells;
Shall in the second and the third doth threaten;
Will simply then foretells a future feat.

The distinction between the past tenses *should*, *would* is very similar

(c) We must distinguish carefully between mere auxiliaries of tense, voice, mood (*i.e.* symbolic words) and the same words with fuller (or presentive) meaning: *e.g.* I *have* some money" (*have*, a transitive verb, meaning "possess") and "I *have* lost it" (*have* auxiliary and symbolic).

* (d) We can easily see why *have* has come to be used as an auxiliary of tense with *transitive* verbs. When we say "I have the letters," *have* is an ordinary transitive verb; when we say "I have written the letters," *written* is in its origin the passive participle [*i.e.* an adjective] used as a factitive predicate (§ 230) of *have*, explaining the state in which I *possess the letters* [cp. "I hold him guilty," "I strike him dead"]; whence the combination easily passes from denoting merely state produced by the result of a previous action into the description of the whole action, each element losing its full presentive force and becoming partly notional or symbolical: in German the usage is precisely similar, Ich *habe* die Briefe *geschrieben*. The Latin *habeo epistolas scriptas*, where each element is clearly full or presentive [= I possess written letters], the participial adjective agreeing with the noun it qualifies (acc. fem. plur.), is developed in French into *j'ai écrit les lettres* (where *écrit* is uninflected though *lettres* is fem. plur.), but the separate force of each word is retained more clearly than in English in such a construction as *les lettres que j'ai écrites*.

* (e) The usage of *have* with intransitive verbs (*e.g.* I *have* come, I *have* been, *j'ai été*) is then only to be explained by the fact that the construction is borrowed from the usage above discussed; here *have* is entirely symbolical and merely marks completion of action.

* (f) The use of *be* to form a quasi-passive is analogous with *have* in transitive verbs, and easier to understand: in *she is good*, *good* describes the condition in which "she is," "exists" [*elle est bonne*,

illa est bona: in *she is loved*. "loved" performs precisely the same office, and hence as it denotes state—action completed—is much more often perfect (present perfect) in signification than (simple) present [cp. *elle est aimée, amata est*]. The use of the same auxiliary with present [*i.e.* active] participles to form "continuous" tenses is similar: cp. "striking" as adj. and part. in *she is striking*.

* (g) It is evident from this that "I am arrived" and similar constructions of past participles of *intransitive* verbs, show the logical way of forming the perfect with these verbs; in English (less in German) it has been largely discarded in favour of the *have* method. Where we use *be* in such cases it is to lay stress on the fact that the action is completely finished and the subject continues in the state denoted by the participle which is then a mere adjective; e.g. *she is arrived, come* implies that she is still here, still in a state of having arrived, come: hence, when the verb is limited by an adjunct in such a way that stress is laid on the action, we always use the "have" form; e.g. *Our friends have rapidly dispersed*; but we may say *Our friends are dispersed*.

FORMATION OF VERBS.

The Native Element.

§ 184. We may regard as primitive nearly all verbs of the strong conjugation, and many of the weak conjugation which cannot be shown to be derivative.

(a) Further, as far as we are concerned here, we have nothing to remark on the formation of such verbs as *love*, which, though not primitive, inasmuch as their original derivation from other words is traceable, now exhibit no signs of formative elements.

Thus verb *love* is M.E. *loven*, *lufien*, from O.E. *lufian*, from the noun *lufu*; in other words the verb "love" is derived from the noun "love."

(b) Of course every verb exhibited in O.E. a flexion of conjugation; e.g. *sing* (inf.)—O.E. *sing-an*; we may, however, disregard these merely grammatical suffixes here, especially as they have disappeared entirely from Modern English.

(c) Other verbs not primitive show some trace of their origin by preserving a consonantal sound which has been affected (generally softened by the following vowel); e.g. *house* (sb.) and *house* [where *s* = *z*] (verb): *live* and *live*.

* O.E. *hūs*, whence M.E. *hou*s; M.E. verb *housen*. So O.E. *lif* and verb *lifian*.

§ 185. Owing to the general disappearance of verbal flexions we can use any noun as a verb without change of form; e.g. nouns: *iron, yacht, chair*; verbs: *to iron, he yachts, they chaired him*. There is nothing further to remark on such formations. They are, of course, all weak (§ 169).

(a) In O.E. such verbs usually bore traces of their secondary nature; e.g. *luf-i-an*, from *lufu* above (where the *-i-* shows that the verb is a derivative).

(b) Frequently the modern form of the root vowel shows the effect of the vowel of the suffix having caused mutation; e.g. *to set, sell, fell* (§§ 175, 188; cp. Ger. *setz-en, fäll-en*). But, of course, new formations have no mutation.

§ 186. A number of verbs are identical in form with nouns or adjectives, but are distinguished from them by a difference of accent: e.g. *présent*, to *présent*.

(a) Other instances are:—

absént—to absént;	éxport—to expórt
accént—to accént	fréquent—to fréquent
cómpound—to compóund	impórt—to impórt

(b) In O.E. the accent generally fell on the first syllable, whence we retain the practice of throwing back the stress as far as possible: but such as began with an unimportant prefix were not accented on this, e.g. *arise, become, forgive*. French words, on the other hand, retained the Latin accent, so that the stress frequently fell on the last syllable (§§ 73, 74), or the last but one. This accentuation of French words, when they passed into English, early began to give way to the English system, the result in some cases being the retention of the accent on the final syllable for the verb-form by analogy with similarly accented native verbs (cp. *accént, arise*) and the throwing back in accordance with native usage of the accent in the noun- and adjective-forms, as seen in the instances given above. [See Sweet's "New English Grammar," §§ 879-888, from which the following lines are quoted: "When a foreign word is used in different senses, it often happens that in its more familiar meaning it throws the stress back, keeping the original stress in the less familiar meaning. Thus we keep the original Latin stress in the adjective *angúst* and the name *Augústus* = Latin *angústus*, but throw it back in the month-name *Augúst*. So also the adjective *minúte* keeps its Latin stress, which is thrown back in the more familiar noun *minúte*."]]

§ 187. A large number of verbs formed from nouns preserve an effect of this formation in the mutated vowel; e.g. *blood—bleed, doom—deem*.

* (a) O.E. *blōd—blēdan, dōm—dēman*.

§ 188. A certain number of weak verbs show that they have been derived from strong ones by mutation of stem vowel. Such pairs are—

<i>strong</i>	<i>weak</i>
sit	set
fall	fell
drink	drench
lie	lay
swoop (<i>now weak</i>)	sweep
fare (<i>now weak</i>)	ferry

In such pairs the strong form is originally intransitive; the weak is transitive and causative. Thus *fell* is "to make to fall," etc. The double forms of *hang* and *wake* properly belong here also; see § 171a.

* (a) The weak form is not necessarily (or usually) derived from the infinitive stem. Thus O.E. *sittan* has preterite *set* [= "*sat*"], whence *settan* [= *set*- + *ian*], our *set*.

* (b) The number of such pairs is much less now than in O.E., because the secondary and weak form has often usurped the functions of its parent while retaining its own.

* (c) *Swoop* represents O.E. *swāpan* (strong), whence a form *swēpan* (= *swāp*- + *ian*) must have arisen to produce M.E. *sweepen*, Mod. E. *sweep*.

Fare (now weak) . . . *ferry* also belong here; O.E. *faran* and *ferian*. The final syllable in *ferry* seems to be an example of the survival of the formative *i* in *-ian*.

* (d) Cp. the numerous verbs of this class in German, such as *fallen, fällen—trinken* (pret. *trank*), *tränken—saugen, säugen—fahren* (pret. *fuhr*), *führen*, in which the process of derivation is a little more obvious.

§ 189. Compound verbs rarely present formations which are not easily understood. A large class are those in which the first element is an adverb, which is scarcely to be regarded as more than a prefix (§§ 196-7); e.g. *over-throw*. Other methods of combination are seen in (i) *breakfast*, (ii) *whitewash*, (iii) *doff* (= *do* + *off*).

(a) So *don* = *do* + *on*; archaic *dup*, *dout* = *do* + *up*, *do* + *out*.

Teutonic Verbal Suffixes.

§ 190. The chief Teutonic suffixes seen in English verbs appear in such words as *sadd-en*, *suck-le*, and *chatt-er*; rarer ones appear in *har-k*, *clean-se*.

(a) The suffix *-en* is found in a large number of verbs, being used as a rule to make a causative verb from an adjective; e.g. *sadd-en* = "to make *sad*"; so *black-en*, *cheap-en*, *gladd-en*, *lik-en*, *madd-en*, *sharp-en*, *whit-en*, etc. Many of these verbs are intransitive, e.g. *redd-en*, "become red," as well as transitive ("make red"), and perhaps all may be so used. Examples are: *bright-en*, *dark-en*, *deep-en*, *fresh-en*, *less-en*, *quick-en*, *short-en*, *sick-en*, *thick-en*, *weak-en*. A few are formed from nouns (all causative): *fright-en*, *heart-en*, *length-en*, *strength-en*.

Glisten contains this suffix, and can only be used intransitively. The root is the same as that of *glitter*, *glisten*. Similarly *listen* contains this suffix, and is derived from a verb meaning "to hear"; so *waken*, from vb. *wake*. This is the original force of the suffix, viz., to make a verb from a verb.

Op-en as a verb was formed by merely adding a verbal inflexion (now vanished) to the adjective *op-en*, in which the *-en* is an adjectival (past part.) suffix; see § 150b. Similarly *own* (verb) is from *own* (adjective), the strong past participle of (old form of) verb *owe* (§ 179b).

The addition of the verbal flexion to the past participial *-n* has given us several verbs now terminated in *-n*, which perhaps belong here. Such are *daw-n*, from M.E. *daw-n-en* and *daw-en*, from O.E.

dagian, from *dæg*, "day"; *drown*, from O.E. *drunc(e)n-ian*, where *drunc-en* = past part. *drunk-en*; *fawn*, from O.E. *fægn-ian*, where *fægn* = *fain*, "rejoiced"; *learn*, connected with verb *lere*, "teach," now obsolete.

* (b) The suffix is in O.E. *-n-ian*, as in the above examples. Its use in forming causatives from adjectives, etc., is comparatively modern; but it is, however, now generally so employed, and is to be looked on as still living. It is practically the only *native* suffix (but see § 195) that we have which now serves to impart a distinctively verbal shape to a word. German, which retains its verb flexions, uses it rarely, as it serves the same end by simply adding these—e.g. *rot*, *röt-en* (where of course the *-en* is *not* cognate with that of *redd-en*); cp., however, *lehr-en* and *ler-n-en*. In *öff-n-en*, *eig-n-en* (for *öff-en-en*, *eig-en-en*) the first *-n* is cognate with that of *ope-n*, *ow-n* (*i.e.* is past participial).

(c) *-le*, *-er* are suffixes used chiefly in frequentative verbs, especially such as seem to be of imitative origin: *habb-le*, *ratt-le*, *spark-le*, *rust-le*, *crumb-le*, *whist-le*; *chatt-er*, *clatt-er*, *patt-er*, *glimm-er*. Cp. Ger. *läch-el-n*, *glimm-er-n*.

(d) *-k*, which appears in a few verbs, has an intensive or iterative force. An example is *har-k* (allied to *hear*) and *hear-k-en* (the same word with suffix *-en* above discussed: cp. Ger. *hor-ch-en* and *hör-en*). This *-k* appears in *stal-k* (connected with vb. *steal*), *wal-k* (root *wal*, meaning "roll," as in *vole-ere*), *lur-k* (cp. Ger. *lau-er-n* and *lauschen*), and *smir-k* (connected with *smile*).

(e) *-s*, *-ss* appears in *clean-se*, "to make clean," and in *ble-ss* (from *blood*): so *clasp* (for *clap-se*), *grasp* (*grap-se*), *rinse*.

clasp, *grasp* are metathesis forms (§ 65) of *clap-se*, *grap-se* (Ger. *grap-sen*), from same roots as *clap*, *grip*. [Similarly *lisp* is also formed as *lipse*, but its origin is not clear; it is *not* connected with *lip*; the O.E. form *wlips* or *wlisp* may be onomatopœic, as *whisp-er* seems to be.]

* *rinse*, though borrowed by us from French, is of Teutonic (Norse) origin, and means "to make *hreinn*," *i.e.* pure: cp. Ger. *rein*.

bless is M.E. *blessen*, O.E. *blēd-s-ian*, formed by mutation from *blād*, "blood," with this suffix; the original meaning was, perhaps, "to offer a blood-sacrifice."

Foreign Verbal Suffixes.

§ 191. Many Latin verbs have no trace of verbal suffixes beyond those of mere flexion, and these latter vanish when the words reach us in English. Thus L. *judic-are*, *part-ire*, *recip-ere*, *vend-ere*, become F. *jug-er*, *part-ir*, *recev-oir* (formerly *recev-er*), *vend-re*, whence our *judge*, *depart*, *receive*, *vend*; so *aedific-are* becomes F. *édifi-er*, and appears in English as *edify*.

(a) Such words in M.E. received the usual terminative of the English verb, e.g. *jug-en* ("judge"), which, of course, disappeared in the usual way from Mod. Eng. Others have since been formed (often directly from Latin) on the same model, thus presenting the bare stem: e.g. *act* (L. *act-um*), *dilate* (L. *dilat-are*).

(b) *Edi-fy* and others in *-fy*. These words are compounds in Latin, or are formed in English and French on the model of those derived from such compounds, so that the *-fy* (F. *-fier*, L. *-ficare*, from *facere*, "make") is used almost as a causative verbal suffix—cp. English *-en*, § 190—in a certain class of words of learned construction: examples are *forti-fy* (cp. *strength-en*), *beauti-fy*, *petri-fy* (L. *petrum*, from Gk. *πέτρος*, "stone," *-petre* in "salt-petre"), *morti-fy*, *solidi-fy*. So in contemptuous, semi-humorous formations, such as *Frenchi-fi-ed* (*quasi* past part. adj.).

§ 192. The Latin infinitive flexion has been partially preserved occasionally by its being treated as part of the stem. Thus *render* is M.E. *rend-r-en*, from F. *rend-re*, from L. *redd-ere*; so in *sur-rend-er* (where *sur* = L. *super*, § 198).

(a) The nouns *leis-ure*, *pleas-ure* also preserve old Romance infinitives: F. *lois-ir*, *plais-ir*; L. *lic-ere*, *plac-ere*. So *dev-oir* (archaic in English), F. *dev-oir* (older *dev-er*), L. *deb-ere*, "owe."

§ 193. *-ish* appears in many verbs of Romance origin, as in *pun-ish*, *flour-ish*, *fin-ish*.

(a) Its origin is seen more plainly in the corresponding French words, which have the stems *pun-iss-*, *flor-iss-*, *fin-iss-* (as shown, e.g. in *pun-iss-ais*, *flor-iss-ant*, *fin-iss-e*). This *-iss-* is the Latin inceptive verbal suffix *-esc-* (as in *flor-esc-ere*), which was freely used in popular Latin. [Thus French infinitive *fleurir* represents L. *flor-ere*; but *florissant* = L. *flor-esc-entem*.]

§ 194. Various other suffixes which appear in Romance verbs are not themselves verbal formatives. These have been already discussed under nominal suffixes. Examples are seen in *adjudic-ate*, *trem-b-le*, *pre-s-ent*, *aug-ment*, etc.

(a) The past part. stem *-ate* (§ 127e) is very freely used in English verbs where French employs the mere infinitive stem: e.g. contrast English *situ-ate*, *perpetu-ate* with French *situ-er*, *perpetu-er*. Hence we see such words are coined in English from Latin, and have not reached us through French. Thus, *adjudic-ate* is an English formation (L. *ad-judio-atus*), but *ad-judge* is F. *-juger*, from *judic-are*: so *vindicate* and (re)*venge*. In many other cases the stem of the Latin supine gives the English verb where French preserves the infinitive: cp. *neglect*, act, with *négliger*, *agir*.

(b) *tremble* is the French *trem-b-ler* (where the *b* is intrusive, § 88), from L. *trem-ul-are*; but this is from the adj. *trem-ul-us*, so that the suffix is adjectival in its origin, not verbal. So in *granulate*, the *l* is L. diminutive (§ 127: *gran-ul-um*, from *gran-um*).

§ 195. The verbal suffix *-ize* or *-ise* (*civil-ize*, *civil-ise*) is common in English formations, and is still living, so that it often appears in hybrids: it is Greek by origin.

(a) The Greek form is *-ίζ-ειν* (as in *πολεμίζειν*, "make war," from *πόλεμος*, "war"), which in popular Latin was freely used as *-iz-are*, and in French as *-iser*, whence our *-ise*, *-ize* [the spellings are both used: on etymological grounds *-ise* is preferable, as showing that the suffix passed through French; but for phonetic reasons *-ize* is obviously preferable]. Examples of English verbs derived from Greek originals with this suffix are *philosoph-ize*, *oritic-ize*, *harmon-ize*: hybrids are *moral-ize*, *civil-ize*, *italic-ize*, *util-ize*, *central-ize* (Gk. *κεντρ- + -al*, L. adj. suffix, § 152d), *terror-ize*, etc.

PREFIXES (Verbs, Nouns, Adjectives, etc.).

§ 196. The prefixes in the following sections are given in alphabetical order (in each of three divisions—Teutonic, Latin, Greek), without regard to the part of speech where they most commonly appear. As a rule (perhaps always) they were originally adverbs, and therefore used (at first) freely to form what were, in reality, compound verbs.

§ 197. Teutonic Prefixes:—

- a- (i) (verbal: "forth," "away"), *a-rise*, *a-bide*, *a-wake*.
- (ii) ("ever"), in *aught* (§ 208), *either* (§ 148).
- (iii) (for various prepositions, "of," "on," "at"): *a-down*, *a-live*, *a-do*.
- (iv) (for various other O.E. prefixes): *a-bout* (§ 214*b*), *a-long* (§ 214*a*), *a-ware*.

be- (same as prep. *by*): *be-set*, *be-smear*, *be-take*.

for- has intensive force in *for-bear*, *for-give*; privative and pejorative in *for-swear* ("swear falsely"), *for-get*, *forego* (for *for-go*, "go without").

fore- (as in "be-fore"): *fore-bode*, *fore-see*, *fore-sight*, *fore-shorten*.

gain- (as in "a-gain-s-t"): *gain-say* (cp. "contradict").

mis- (pejorative: "a-miss"): *mis-deed*, *mis-understand*, *mis-take*.

or-: only in *or-deal*: see (e) below.

to- ("asunder"): *to-brake* (obsolete: used in Bible).

un- (i) (merely privative with nouns and adjectives: "not"): *un-able*, *un-belief*, *un-kind*.

(ii) (verbal prefix: meaning "against," denoting the reversal of an action): *un-do*, *un-bar*, *un-bind*, *un-lock*, *un-say*.

(iii) intensive only in *un-to*, *un-til*, § 214.

wan-: only in *wan-ton*: see (h) below.

with- ("against," "back"): in *with-draw*, *with-hold*, *with-stand*.

Add to these the first element in *after-noon*, *forth-coming*, *in-lay*, *on-set*, *out-side*, *over-do*, *to-day*, *under-go*, *up-hold*, where the adverb (or preposition) is clearly shown in its modern form and signification, so that these and such words may be regarded as compounds.

(a) a (i) as in *a-wake*, etc., is an intensive prefix: cognate with Ger. *er-*, as in *er-wachen*; originally meaning "away," "forth," as in O.E. *ā-faran*, "fare away."

a (iii) *a-down* = O.E. *of-dūne*, where *of* is prep. *of*, *off*. *a-live* = *on-life*: so *a-bed*, *a-foot*, *a-back*, etc. *a-do* = *at + do*, a Northern combination, *at* being used in the North as we use *to*, with the gerundive infinitive: cp. such a phrase as "here's a *to-do* about nothing."

a (iv) *aware* represents O.E. *ge-wær*, which became in M.E. *ywar*, *iwar*. The prefix *ge*, very common in O.E. (as in Ger. *gewahr*, *genehm*, etc.), had a sort of collective force, and was generally prefixed to all past participles (as always in German). It appears in the archaic *y-clept* ("called"), and *y-wis* ("surely": Ger. *ge-wiss*), and in *e-nough* (O.E. *ge-nōh*: cp. Ger. *ge-nug*). As a consonant we have it in *e-luteh* (O.E. *ge-læccan*: from the simple vb. *læccan* comes our *latch*). [This prefix is perhaps cognate with L. *co-*, *co-m*, § 198].

(b) *be-* ("by"—around): (i) limits the meaning of a transitive verb, e.g. *be-set*, or (ii) turns an intransitive verb into a transitive one, as *be-speak*. Arising out of the latter usage it often has a sort of intensive force, as in *be-dabble*, *be-spatte*. It forms verbs from nouns, e.g. *be-friend*, *be-dew*, *be-witch*; it has privative force in *be-head*. [It is O.E. prefix unchanged, but less freely used. Used in German much as in English, e.g. *be-freunden* ("befriend"), *be-nehmen* ("take away").]

The same prefix (= by) appears in *be-low*, *be-sides*, *b-ut* (§ 214b).

(c) *for-* (not the same as prep. *for*) is cognate with Ger. *ver-*, and as the examples show has both its chief forces. Used like L. *per-* in some compounds, § 198. [N.B.—In *for-feit*, *for-close*, the first element is of Romance origin, § 198.]

(d) *mis-* is allied to vb. *miss*. In *a-miss* the *a* = *on* (as in *a-bed*, etc.), and the *miss* contains the root of this suffix. [It is Scandinavian as well as native English in our language.] The German cognate *miss-* (e.g. *miss-verstehen*, "*misunderstand*") is similarly used. [N.B.—In *mis-chance*, *mis-chief*, and some others the suffix is of Romance origin, § 198.]

(e) *or-*, fairly common in O.E. adjectives with privative force (e.g. *or-sorg*, "without sorrow"), is now only kept in *or-deal*, properly "a *deal*-ing out," and so "judgment," "test." The prefix originally denotes origin, "out of," and hence the privative force noted above. In German it is more freely employed, e.g. *Ur-teil* ("judgment," cognate with *or-deal*), *Ur-sache*, *Ur-sprung*, etc. *Ort* (archaic; used in pl. *orts*, "leavings"—corrupted in phrase "adds and ends") contains this prefix: O.E. *or* + *etan*, "to eat," i.e. "uneaten things," "refuse."

(f) *to-*, "asunder," not now used; cognate with Ger. *zer-* in *zerreissen* ("tear into bits"), *zerbrechen* ("break up"), etc.

(g) *un-* (i) privative is used like its cognates, in Ger. *un-* and in L. *in-* (§ 198).

un- (ii), "back," "against," is cognate with Ger. *ent-* (as in *ent-binden*, *un-bind*), L. *ant-e* (§ 198), and Gk. *ἀντ-ι* (§ 199). The same prefix in another form appears in *a-long* (§ 214), and in *an-swer*, which is O.E. *and-swerian* (vb.), where *swerian* = "to speak," "swear," cp. the form of the prefix in Ger. *Ant-wort*, *Ant-litz*.

(h) *wan-* in O.E. had much the same force as *un-* privative. *Wan-ton* is M.E. *wan-towen* where the second element represents O.E. *togen*, past part. of *tēon*, "draw," "educate." Thus *wan-ton* is literally "un-trained," "ill-bred"—the sense of the Ger. *un-ge-zogen*, where *zogen* is the cognate of the *-ton* above. [*Wan-t*, *wan-e* are from the same root.]

(i) *with-* (same as the preposition, but retaining only the meaning "against" in compounds) is cognate with Ger. *wieder*, *wider*, "again" and "against"; *wieder-holen*, *wider-stehen*.

(j) Concerning the adverbs and prepositions in § 197, it is to be noticed that *on* and *in* also enter into combinations in somewhat altered forms; for *on-*, see *a-* above. *In-* sometimes becomes *im-* before *p*, *b* (§ 68), e.g. *im-bed*, which is sometimes spelt *em-bed* by influence of Romance *en-* (§ 198).

§ 198.

Prefixes of Latin Origin.

(The syllables in heavy type are the Latin forms.)

ab-, abs-, a- ("from"): *ab-negation*, *ab-rupt*; *abs-tain*, *abs-cond*; *a-bridge* (doublet of *ab-breviate*), *a-vert*.

ad- ("to"): *ad-herere*, *ad-jective*; with various assimilations as in *a-chieve*, *ag-gravate*, *al-low*, *as-sent*, etc.

(a) *advance*, *advantage* have inserted a *d* by mistaken etymology: the prefix is really *a-*, not *ad*: French *avancer* from *avant*, from Latin *ab* + *ante*.

ambi- ("around"): *amb-itious*, *amb-ient*, *ambi-dexterous*, *ambi-guous*.

ante- ("before"): *ante-cedent*, *ante-nuptial*, *ante-diluvian*.

bi-, his- ("double," "twice"): *bi-cycle*, *bi-lingual*, *bi-ped*, *bi-sulphate*; *bis-cuit*.

circum- ("around"): *circum-ference*, *circum-flex*, *circum-vent*; *circu-it*, *circu-itous*.

com- ("with," L. prep. *cum*): *com-mit*, *com-mon*, *com-pose*; as *co-* in *co-herere*, *co-operate*, etc.; and with various assimilations in *col-lect*, *con-nect*, *cor-rupt*.

contra- ("against"): *contra-dict*, *contra-distinction*; *contro-vert*; *counter-mand*, *counter-march*.

de- ("down," "away"—often expresses negation): *de-cay*, *de-cline*, *de-pend*, *de-pose* [not *de-feat*, see *dis-*, below].

demi- ("half"): *demi-god*.

dis-, di- ("apart," "un-"): *dis-appear*, *dis-cover*, *dis-credit*, *dis-gust*; *di-verge*, *di-vide*; *dis-fuse*, *des-cant*, etc. It appears as *de-* in *defeat*, *defy*, etc.

ex-, e- ("out of"): *ex-amine*, *ex-ercise*, *ex-treme*; *e-licit*, *e-liminate*, *e-vasion*; *es-say* (*exagium*, through F. *essai*).

extra- ("beyond"): *extra-ordinary*, *extra-vagant*.

foris ("outside") in *for-feit*, *fore-close*.

(b) *Forfeit*, from O.F. *forfait*, from Lat. *foris* + *fact-um*. *Fore-close*, from Lat. *foris* + *claus-um* (through French).

in- (i) ("in"): *in-cite*, *in-culcate*, *in-dent*, *in-ject*; *il-lustrate*, *in-pel*, *ir-ritable*; *en-noble*, *en-rol*, *en-title*; *em-bellish*, *em-ploy*.

in- (ii) ("not"): *in-competent*, *in-nocent*, *in-sensible*; *im-patience*, *ir-rational*, *il-liberal*; *en-emy*.

inter- ("within," "between"): *inter-sect*, *inter-rupt*; *intel-lect*; *enter-prise*, *enter-tain*.

intro- ("within," "between"): *intro-duce*, *intro-spection*.

juxta- ("near") appears in *juxta-position*.

minus, which became in O.F. *mes-*, appears as *mis-* in *mis-adventure*, *mis-chief*, *mis-nomer*, with much the same meaning as the English prefix *mis-* (§ 197), with which, however, it is not etymologically connected.

ne, nec ("not"): *ne-farious*, *neg-lect*; *ne-ull*.

non ("not"): *non-combatant*, *non-conformist*, *non-age*, *non-sense*.

ob-, obs- ("opposite" and "upon"): *ob-stacle*, *ob-lige*, *ob-long*; *o-mit*; *oc-casion*; *of-fence*; *op-posite*; *os-tentatious*.

per- ("through"): *per-ambulate*, *per-ceive*, *per-son*; *pel-lucid*; *par-son*, *par-don*; *pil-grim* (L. *per-egrinus*).

por- ("forth"): *pol-lute*, *por-tend*, *pos-sess*.

pro- ("instead of," "before"): *pro-ceed*, *pro-duce*, *pro-noun*; *prof-fer*; *pour-tray*, *por-trait*, *pur-chase*; *prod-igal*.

post- ("after"): *post-pone*, *post-nuptial*; *pu-ny* (L. *post + natus*).

prae- ("before"): *prae-fer*, *pre-liminary*, *pre-science*; *prison* (L. *pre-hensionem*).

praeter- ("beyond"): *praeter-ite*, *praeter-mit*.

re-, red- ("again," "back"): *re-cede*, *re-cur*, *re-solve*, *re-tain*; *red-eem*, *red-olent*, *ren-der* (from L. *reddere* through Fr. *rendre*); *r-ally*.

retro- ("back"): *retro-grade*, *retro-spect*; *rear-guard*, *rere-dos*.

se- ("apart"): *se-cret*, *se-lect*, *se-parate*, *se-cure*; *s-ure*; probably as *sed-* in *sed-ition*.

semi- ("half"): *semi-circle*, *semi-colon*, *semi-tone*, *semi-quaver*.

sine- ("without"): *sine-cure*; *san-s-culotte*.

sub- ("under"): *sub-lieutenant*, *sub-mit*, *sub-stantive*; *sus-tain*; *su-spect*, *suc-cumb*, *suf-fix*, *sug-gest*, *sum-mon*, *sup-pose*, *sur-reptitious*.

subter- ("under"): *subter-fuge*.

super- ("over"): *super-cilious*, *super-fine*, *super-lative*, *super-natural*, *super-stition*; *sur-face*, *sur-mount*, *sur-name*, *sur-render*, *sur-vive*; *sir-loin*. [Notice two in *sur-r* are sub-above: *sur-reptitious*, *sur-rogate*.]

trans, tran-, tra- ("beyond"): *trans-fer*, *trans-gress*, *trans-late*; *tran-scend*, *tran-script*; *tra-dition*, *tra-duce*, *tra-verse*; *tres-pass*.

ultra- ("beyond"): *ultra-marine*, *ultra-montane*, *ultra-ridiculous*.

vice- ("in place of"): *vice-chancellor*, *vice-president*, *vice-roy*; *vis-count*.

§ 199.

Prefixes of Greek Origin.

amphi- ("around," "on both sides"): *amphi-bious*, *amphi-theatre*.

an-, a- (privative): *an-archy*, *an-aemia*, *an-aesthetics*; *a-byss*, *a-orist*, *a-pathy*, *a-sylum*, *a-theism*, *a-mbrosia*.

ana- ("back"): *ana-gram*, *ana-lyse*, *ana-thema*.

anti- ("against"): *anti-climax*, *anti-pathy*, *anti-thesis*; *ant-agonist* [not the prefix of *anti-cipate*; see ante, above].

apo- ("from," "off"): *apo-calypse*, *apo-logy*, *apo-stile*; *ap-horism*, *ap-haeresis*.

archi- ("chief"): *archi-episcopal*, *archi-lect*; *arche-type*; *arch-bishop*, *arch-duke*.

auto- ("self"): *auto-crat*, *auto-biographer*, *auto-maton*, *aut-hentic*.

cata- ("down," intensive): *cata-lepsy*, *cata-logue*, *cata-rrh*, *cata-strophe*; *cat-echise*, *cat-egory*; *cat-hedral*, *cat-holic*.

di- ("double," "bi-"): *di-lemma*, *di-phthong*.

dia- ("through"): *dia-bolical*, *dia-gonal*, *dia-logue*, *dia-tribe*; *dea-con*; *de-vil*.

dys- ("badly," "evil"): *dys-entery*, *dys-pepsia*.

ek-, ex- ("out of"): *ex-odus*, *ex-orcise*; *ec-clesiastic*, *ec-logue*.

en- ("in"): *en-ergy*; *em-phasis*, *em-piric*.

epi- ("upon"): *epi-demic*, *epi-gram*, *epi-taph*; *ep-och*; *ep-hemeral*.

eu- ("well"): *eu-logy*, *eu-phemism*; *ev-angelist*.

hemi- ("half"): *hemi-sphere*, *hemi-stich*; *me-grims*.

Megrim, "headache on one side of the skull," is ultimately from Gk. *ἡμικράνιον* (from *ἡμι*, "hemi-" + *κράνιον*, "skull").

hetero- ("other"): *hetero-dox*, *hetero-geneous*.

homo- ("same"): *homo-geneous*, *hom-onym*; *homeo-pathy*.

hyper- ("over"): *hyper-critical, hyper-bole, hyper-oxide.*

hypo- ("under"): *hypo-chondria, hypo-crisy; hyp-hen; hyp-allage.*

meta- ("with," denotes change): *meta-phor, meta-physics, meta-thesis; met-hod.*

mono- ("single"): *mono-logue, mono-polise; mon-arch, mon-ody.*

palin- ("again"): *palin-genesis, palin-ode; palin-psest.*

pan-, panto- ("all"): *pan-acea, pan-demonium, pan-egyric; panto-mime.*

para- ("beside," "amiss"): *para-bola, para-dox, para-graph, para-lysis (and pa-lsy); par-enthesis, par-oxyism.*

peri- ("around"): *peri-od, peri-patetic.*

pro- ("before," "for"): *pro-logue, pro-phet.*

syn- ("with"): *syn-agogue, syn-od, syn-onym; sy-stem; syl-lable; sym-bol, sym-ptom.*

CHAPTER XIV.

THE ADVERB.

(a) *Classification.*

§ 200. An Adverb is a word used with a verb, an adjective, or another adverb to limit or further explain its meaning by adding some qualification.

(a) *Adverb* = L. *ad*, "to" + *verb-um*, "word."

(b) Many words which are adverbs according to the definition are also conjunctions (ch. xvi.), inasmuch as they serve to join sentences: where a word stands in such a position as to admit of its being parsed as adverb or conjunction, it is perhaps better to treat it as the latter, though some grammarians prefer to call it a Connective Adverb.

e.g. *When* is he coming? Adverb (of Time, § 201). I saw him *when* he was here (Adverbial Conjunction or Connective Adverb).

§ 201. Adverbs are classified as—

(i) Adverbs of Manner: *how*? and words which answer this; e.g. *thus, happily, fast*.

(ii) Place: *where*? *whither*? *whence*? and words answering these; e.g. *here, there, upstairs*.

(iii) Time: *when*? and its answers; e.g., *then, yesterday, to-morrow, formerly*.

(iv) Quantity and Degree: e.g. *much, very, little, more, enough*.

(v) Affirmation and Negation: e.g. *yes, no, indeed, truly*.

(b) *Inflection.*

§ 202. The comparative and superlative of adverbs whose meaning admits of comparison is generally formed with *more* and *most*; but adverbs identical in form with the corresponding adjectives (e.g. *fast*) may be compared by *-er*, *-est* ("This is a *faster* horse"—he runs *faster*).

(a) These forms are only such as are monosyllabic in the positive: the identity of the adjective and adverb in such cases is not the result of the adjective being used for the adverb, but of the originally dissyllabic adverb having been reduced to a monosyllable by the loss of a flexional *-e*; thus O.E. *cwīc* (adj.) and *cwīc-e* (adv.) become alike *quick* in Modern English.

§ 203. The adjectives irregularly compared given in § 146 above have corresponding adverbs which share their comparative and superlative forms.

(c) *Formation.*

§ 204. Some monosyllabic adverbs of manner are identical in form with the corresponding adjective: see § 202 a.

(a) e.g. He runs *fast* (adv.): this train is *fast* (adj.).

§ 205. Other adverbs of manner are generally formed by adding *-ly* to the corresponding adjective; e.g. *foolish-ly*, *happi-ly*.

(a) This *-ly* is the O.E. *-līc-e*, "like," the adverbial form of O.E. *līc*, "like," seen in the formation of adjectives and discussed in § 149.

(b) If the adjective ends in *-ly* it is somewhat awkward to add another *-ly*, though this is sometimes done; e.g. *friendli-ly* (adv. of *friend-ly*): an adverb phrase is generally used instead; e.g. for *kindli-ly*, *manli-ly*, "in a kindly (or manly) way," "*fashion*," "*style*," "*manner*," etc.

§ 206. The oblique cases of nouns were used in various ways to form adverbs. Examples of this usage remain in such expressions as—

Yesterday
Always
Seldom
Why

Old Accusative
Genitive
Dative
Instrumental

These and similar forms are further discussed in the following paragraphs:—

(a) Most oblique cases (and the combinations used to supply their place) are by their nature either adjectives or adverbs; e.g. the *boy's* book—adj.; he slew him *with a sword* ("*gladio*")—adv. Hence it is adverbial formations have sometimes preserved case endings which have otherwise disappeared—see *why*, *seldom*, below.

(b) **Accusative.**—This has no distinctive suffix in Modern English words, the distinction between "nominative" and "objective" in nouns being now purely a grammatical or syntactical one not marked by inflexion. In accordance with the use of the accusative case (when the flexional difference was still weak) for adverbial relations of duration, extent, etc., English grammarians consider all uninflected forms of nouns used adverbially to be in the objective case; e.g. "He danced all the *night*."

(c) The **Genitival -s**—the mark of the possessive in Modern English nouns—is seen in various adverbs, though sometimes disguised by spelling. Examples are *once* (= *one-s*), *twice* (for *twies* from *two*), *thrice* (for *thries*, from *three*), *always-s*, and *whil-s-t* [where the *t* has been added after the *s* as in *again-s-t*, *among-s-t*, *amid-s-t*, etc.]; cp. such expressions as *of an evening*: the Ger. cognate -s is similarly used; cp. *Nacht-s*, *ein-s-t*.

(d) A **Dative (or Instrumental) plural suffix -um** survives as -*om* in *whil-om* (O.E. *hwil-um*, "at times," "formerly," from *hwil*, "time," "while") and in *seld-om* ("at intervals": O.E. *seld*, adj., "rare," "infrequent"; cp. Ger. *selt-en*).

(e) The **Instrumental singular** survives in *why* (O.E. *hwȳ*), from O.E. *hwā*, "who": *how*, O.E. *hū*, is apparently another form of the same word; thus *how*, *why*, mean originally "by *what* means," "for *what*"; cp. the formations of F. *pour-quoi*, L. *qua-re*, Ger. *war-um* and *wie*.

(f) *the* before a comparative adverb (e.g. "*the* more she smiles, *the* less I like her"), is also an instrumental: O.E. *thȳ* (cognate with *-to* in Ger. *des-to*), = "by that (amount)"; cp. L. *ex* . . . (*quo*).

(g) The adverbs formed from pronominal roots are noteworthy: they may be conveniently tabulated as follows:—

Pronoun.	Rest at.	Motion to.	Time.	Motion from.	Instrumental.
he	here	hither		hence	
the	there	thither	then	thence	the (f above)
who	where	whither	when	whence	{ why how

he-re, *the-re*, *who-re* (in all of which the final *e* is unetymological: O.E. *hēr*, *ṡēr*, *hwōr*) are probably to be taken as remains of old locative cases: e.g. *there* = "at that place," like L. *dom-i*, "at home": cp. Ger. *hier*, *dar*, *wor(in)*.

hi-ther, *thi-ther*, *whi-ther* have a suffix which had originally a comparative force, as also in *who-ther*, *fur-ther*, *o-ther* (see § 150i. where the cognate suffixes are given): thus *thi-ther* means something like "more to that place."

the-n, *who-n*, and M.E. *henne* (which should have given a modern "*hen*"; but its place is taken by *now*) represent O.E. *ṡonne*, *hwonne*, *heon-an*, which closely resemble the accusatives, and are probably the same by origin. *than* (conj.) is simply another form of *then*. Cp. Ger. *wenn* and *wann*, *denn* and *dann*.

Hen-ce, *then-ce*, *when-ce* contain the *-ce* for adverbial (genitival) -s discussed above: thus *hence* stands for *henne-s*, from M.E. *henne*, "*now*," mentioned above (under *then*, *when*): so *whence*, *thence*.

the, *why*, *how* are discussed above (c, f). Probably thus (O.E. *ṡus*) is also to be regarded as an instrumental and a variant form of O.E. instrumental *ṡys* (from *this*: by origin a compound demonstrative containing the root of *the* + root *sa* surviving as demonstrative in *she*, and in O.E. *ṡē*, "he").

§ 207. In a few adverbs other elements appear which may be regarded as adverbial suffixes. Examples are seen in *dark-ling* and *head-long*, *piece-meal*, *down-wards*, *length-ways*, or *length-wise*.

(a) *-ling, -long* is a compound suffix (O.E. *-l-unga* and *-unga*) preserved in *head-long, dark-ling, side-long, sid-ling, grovel-ling*. [The last two are remarkable as having been taken for pres. participles, and thus given rise to verbs *grovel, sidle*.] The suffix has no etymological connection with the adj. *long*, but has been confused with it in *head-long*, etc.: cp. Ger. *blind-ling-s, schritt-ling-s*.

(b) *-meal*, from O.E. *mæl-um* ("by bits"; dat. pl. of *mæl*, "mark," "piece"), is only found in *piece-meal* and some archaic formations: cp. Ger. *ein-mal* ("once"), etc.

(c) *-wards* is suffix *ward*, § 149 + adverbial *-s*, § 206: cp. Ger. *vor-wärt-s*.

(d) *wise, ways* are suffixes of quite different origin but confused in several words. *Way-s* is the substantive *way* with adverbial *-s*: thus *al-ways* (and archaic *alway*: so *straight-way*) represents O.E. *ealne-weeg*, with later suffixed *-s*: but *-wise* is not the same word, the noun *wise* meaning "manner," "fashion," "guise" [which last is the French form of the word]: thus *no-wise* (i.e. "in no manner"), *other-wise, like-wise*: cp. Ger. *keines-wegs* (lit. "in no way"), *kreuz-weise, "cross-wise"*.

§ 208. Other compounds which appear as adverbs are for the most part obvious, or are treated under the other parts of speech to which they belong.

(a) *Not* is a doublet of *naught* = *ne* + *aught*, "not anything": *aught* is the O.E. *āwilt*, where *ā-* = 'ever' and *wilt* is "creature," the parent of our *wight, whit*. [For *ā*, "ever," in some other compounds, see *Either, Neither*, § 148].

(b) In *mean-time* the first element is French *moyen* (M.E. *meien*) from Latin *medi-ānus*, from *medi-um*. [It is thus a doublet of *medium*: the sb. *mean-s* is the same word with Eng. plural suffix. *Not* connected with vb. *mean* (Ger. *mein-en*) or adj. *mean*, "base" (Ger. *mein*)].

§ 209. The prefixes which appear in adverbs are discussed in ch. xv.; under prepositions, where they for the most part reappear. Examples are *a-foot* (= *on* + *foot*), *be-side-s* (= *by* + *side* + adverbial *-s*), *to-morrow*.

CHAPTER XV.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 210. A preposition is used to join a noun or pronoun to a noun or other part of speech to indicate some relationship between them. The noun and preposition together perform the function of an adverb or adjective.

(a) *L. prae-*, "before" + *position-em*, from stem of *posit-um*, supine of *pon-ere*, "put."

(b) Both prepositions and conjunctions appear to be later developments of adverbs; hence many words belong to two of these classes (e.g. *by*, *for*, *along*), and some to all three (e.g. *but*).

§ 211. A preposition is said to govern the noun or pronoun with which it is joined in the formation of adverbial or adjectival phrases; that is to say, the objective-case forms are employed.

(a) The distinction is, of course, of no practical importance in Modern English except as regards those pronouns which have distinct forms for Nominative and Objective; but in O.E. the accusative or dative (or less freely the genitive) form was used after prepositions.

(b) Observe the remnant of this case government preserved in such adverbs as *therein*, *thereby*, *therewith*, *thereat*, *therefore*, where the first element is the *locative* (§ 206) or else the *dat. (fem.) sing.* of the demonstrative adj. (§ 132) governed by the preposition: cf. Ger. *dar-in*, *dar-aus*, *da-mit*, etc.

Formation and Structure.

§ 212. Simple monosyllabic forms (all Teutonic) are *at*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *off* and *of*, *on*, *through*, *till*, *to*, *up*, *with*.

(a) *off* and *of* are merely variant forms.

(b) *till* is a Scandinavian form.

(c) The cognate forms of some of these prepositions (most of which

appear as prefixes in English, Latin, Greek, German, §§ 197-9) should be noticed:—

At: L. *ad*. *By*: Ger. *bei*; Gk. [ἀμ-]φλ. *For*: Ger. *für*. *In*: Ger. *in* (*ein-* in compounds); L. *in*; Gk. ἐν. *Of, off*: Ger. *ab-*; L. *ab*; Gk. ἀπ-δ. *On*: Ger. *an*; Gk. ἀνά. *Through*: Ger. *durch*; L. *tr[ans]*. *To*: Ger. *zu*; Gk. -δς (as in *οἰκάδς*). *Up*: Ger. *auf*. *With*: Ger. *wi-der* ("against").

§ 213. Comparative forms are *after*, *near*, *over*, and perhaps *under*.

* (a) *After* has the same root as *of* (see § 212 c), and is cognate with Gk. ἀπω-ρέφ-ω, "further off," comparative corresponding to ἀπδ. The O.E. forms are *æf-t* and *æf-ter*, the former only surviving in adv. *aft* and in *ab-aft* (§ 214b); cognate Ger. in *After-welt*, "after-world."

Near, see § 145e. *Under*, cognate Ger. *unter*. *Over* is cognate with Ger. *über*, L. (*s*)*uper*, Gk. ὑπέρ, all of which have comparative suffix: it is allied with *up*; the same root, but not comparative, appears in *a-b-ove*; see § 214a.

§ 214. Compound prepositions are generally formed by prefixing a particle (preposition or adverb) to (i) a preposition or adverb, (ii) a noun.

Examples are—

(i) *in-to*, *b-ut* [= "by" + "out"], *with-out*;

(ii) *a-board*, *out-side*.

(a) *a-* = *on-* in *a-b-aft*, *a-board*, *a-b-ove*, *a-cross*, *a-against*, *a-midst*, *a-loft*, *a-hunting*, *a-mongst*, etc.; so in *a-way*, *an-ent* (which represents O.E. *an-efen*, i.e., "on" + "even," with excrement *t*).

[For the *-s-t* in *again-s-t*, *among-s-t*, etc., see 206c].

a- = *of-*, *off-* in *a-down* [= O.E. *ofdūne*, from *dūn*, "a hill"].

a- = *and-*, "against" (see *an-swer*, § 197), in *a-long* [O.E. *and-long*, cognate Ger. *ent-lang*].

(b) *be-*, *b-* = *by-* in *be-fore*, *be-kind*, *be-low*, *be-neath*, *be-side*, etc., *be-tween*, *be-twixt*; *b-ut*; *a-b-aft*, *a-b-out*, *a-b-ove*.

out is the O.E. *ūt* and *ūt-an* (Ger. *aus*). It has as compounds in O.E. *būtan* = *be-*, "by" + *ūtan*, "out," whence *but*, of which the first meaning is thus much as that of *with-out*, i.e. "except," in some cases: *about* stands for O.E. *on-būtan*, i.e. "on-by-out," "surrounding."

In *a-b-aft*, *aft* is the root of *after*, and in *a-b-ove*, *ove* is akin to *over*. The *a-b-* in each case is "on" + "by," as in *a-b-out*.

(c) *un-* in *un-to*, *un-til* is not an O.E. prefix, though of Teutonic origin (the O.E. cognate is *oð*).

§ 215. Verbal forms used as prepositions are *concerning*, *during*, *notwithstanding*, *pending*, *except*, *past*.

(a) The *-ing* forms are all present participles: *concern*, *dure*, "last" (L. *dur-are*), *pend* are of Romance origin, as is this use of the pres. part. Such a phrase as "during his life," stands originally for "his life during (*i.e.* lasting)," L. *vita durante*; in F. *sa vie durant*, an absolute participial construction. We may still use *notwithstanding* after the word it governs; e.g. "*Anything* to the contrary *notwithstanding*." *Touch-ing* (F. *touch-er*; but of Teutonic origin) is somewhat antiquated, in the sense of *concern-ing*.

(b) *Except* is similarly a past part. (L. *except-us*—*ex* + *capere*). Thus, "*except* this" = "this (being) *except-ed*." The French use *except-é* where the past part. origin is plainly shown. So *past* (= *pass-ed*).

§ 216. *Save*, as preposition, is by origin an adjective.

(a) F. *sauf*, L. *salv-us*: a doublet of *safe*. The origin of the usage is an absolute construction much like that of *except* above.

CHAPTER XVI.

CONJUNCTIONS.

(a) *Classification.*

§ 217. Conjunctions join sentences together: they also join words (or groups of words) which are grammatically equivalent.

(a) *e.g.* I saw the boy *and* the girl [= I saw the boy and (I saw) the girl: joins two direct objects].

Come quickly *but* not with too great haste [joins two adverbs].

(b) Conjunction = L. *con-*, i.e. *eum*, "with," and *junction-em* from *junct-um*, supine of *jung-ere*, "join."

§ 218. Conjunctions are divided into two classes—

(i) Those that join sentences (or words) which are not dependent on one another are called co-ordinating conjunctions; these merely act as connectives. Such are—

and, but, or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor.

(a) Among these *and* is merely copulative: *but* is generally adversative; *either, or* are disjunctive-adversative.

(ii) Those that join a dependent sentence (adverbial-clause, noun-clause, adjective-clause) with the sentence which it belongs to. Such are—

that, because, when, although, etc.

(b) Subordinating conjunctions are sometimes grouped according to the kind of sentence they introduce:—

- (i) **Temporal** (time): *when, after, before, since.*
- (ii) **Local** (place): *whence, where.*
- (iii) **Final** (purpose): [in order] *that.*
- (iv) **Consecutive** (consequence): [so] *that.*
- (v) **Conditional** (condition): *if, [provided] that, provided, supposing, unless.*
- (vi) **Concessive** (concession): *though, although.*
- (vii) **Causal** (cause): *because, since [seeing] that.*
- (viii) **Comparative**: *as, than.*

(c) As the above instances show, a conjunction may fall into more than one class or division. In deciding how to classify it in parsing, we must be guided of course solely by the function it performs in the sentence we are considering.

(b) Formation.

§ 219. The formation of the conjunctions has for the most part been already discussed under the other particles, see ch. xiv., xv.; *when, after, before, because, but, either, that*, etc.

(a) No word was in its origin a mere conjunction: a large number of them are still adverbial: see **connective adverbs**, § 200b.

(b) These forms used only as conjunctions in Modern English are noticeable:—

and is cognate with Ger. *und* (and perhaps with Gk. *ἀντι*, L. *ante*): its meaning was "if" (in Scandinavian) as well as "and"; with the former force it survives in archaic phrases as *an*: e.g. "*An it please you.*"

or is short for M.E. *other*, which is not the modern word "other," but the M.E. form of *either* (see § 148): thus *either—or* are doublets: so *nor* is a doublet of *neither*, being short for M.E. *nothor*.

(c) **Whether** (also used archaically as pronoun = "which of two"): see § 150i.

CHAPTER XVII.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 220. Interjections being mere exclamations (expressive of joy, sorrow, disgust, etc.) do not enter into the grammatical structure of sentences.

(a) *L. interjection-em*, from *interject-am*, from supine stem of *interjic-ere*, from *inter*, "among" + *jacere*, "throw."

§ 221. Any word or combination of words may be used in an interjectional fashion; certain apparently unmeaning monosyllables are commonly used as semi-articulate expressions of feeling: e.g. *oh*, *ah*, *eh*, *pooh*, *bosh*, *alas*, etc.

(a) They are generally written with a note of exclamation following them, e.g. *ah!* *Eh?* is often used interrogatively.

(b) *Alas!* (archaic) is a French derivative: *Hélas*: the first element is *Ah* (Eng., F., L.), the second is F. *las*, from L. *lassus*, "tired."

(c) Certain expletives are intentional corruptions used to avoid naming the Deity: thus F. *parbleu* for "par Dieu." The (archaic) English *zounds*, *snails*, *'sdeath*, *marry*; stand for *God's wounds*, *God's nails*, *God's death*, *Mary*: a similar process gives us expressions such as "Great Scott."

CHAPTER XVIII.

SYNTAX.

§ 222. Some of the chief syntactical rules have already been stated in the course of this work. In the following sections these are briefly summarised, and such others are given as are necessary to make the account of the subject fairly complete.

The Concord.

§ 223. The finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

(*) Collective nouns in the singular may take either a singular or a plural verb, according as the collection is considered by the speaker as a whole or as items. Thus we say—

The crowd gradually disperse or disperses.

(b) Two (or more) words in the singular combining to form a subject require a plural verb—

The boy and girl are here [i.e. both are here].

Man, woman, child toil in vain [i.e. all toil].

But *or*, *nor*, separating singular subjects, cause the verb to remain in the singular—

The boy or the girl is here [i.e. one of them is].

Neither man nor woman survives.

(c) A common error is heard in such a sentence as this :—

The King with the Lords and Commons form the Legislature. Here the subject is *King* (sing.), and therefore the verb should be *forms*: the use of the plural is due to the failure to distinguish between preposition (*with*) and conjunction (*and*).

§ 224. The adjectives *this*, *that* can only be used with a singular noun; *these*, *those* with a plural.

(a) The adjective is sometimes said to "agree" with the noun it qualifies in gender, number, case; but this has no bearing on our modern flexionless forms.

(b) Rather frequent errors with *these*, etc., are heard before *sort*, *kind*, especially when followed by *of* and a plural or a collective noun, e.g.—

I don't like *those sort* of persons.
These kind of people say so.

§ 225. A noun may serve to limit or qualify another noun without employing inflexion or preposition to indicate the connection, as e.g. *Edward, the King*. The qualifying noun is then said to be in apposition, and is in the same case and number as the noun it qualifies.

(a) Examples are—

Henry, the schoolmaster's younger *son*, met me.

Here *Henry* is nominative as subject; *son* is nominative as in apposition to *Henry*.

I met *Henry*, the schoolmaster's younger *son* [both obj.].

The appositional inflected possessive is clumsy, and therefore to be avoided, e.g.—

I saw *Brown's* (the *butcher's*) cart.

We are more apt to make a sort of compound of *Brown*, the butcher, and say, "*Brown the butcher's* cart"; cp. *King Henry the First's* actions.

E. L.

§ 226. The relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender and number and person; in case it belongs to its own clause.

(a) That is to say: (i) a relative only used for persons (e.g. *who*) must not be used with an inanimate antecedent and conversely; and (ii) the number and person of the verb agreeing with the relative, when this is the subject, must be the same as that of its antecedent; and (iii) the case of the relative depends wholly upon the clause it belongs to, and has nothing to do with its antecedent; e.g.—

He declares that he must see *me, who*, as it happens, *am* absolutely unable to move.

Here (i) *who*, not *which*, must be used as relative, since the antecedent *me* is male or female; (ii) *am* is sing. and 1st pers. because it agrees with *who*, of which the antecedent is *me*, sing. and 1st pers.; and (iii) *who* is nominative because it is the subject to *am*.

(b) A not uncommon form of error is seen in such a sentence as this:—

He is one of the wisest that has ever lived.

Here the relative (*that*) refers to *wisest* (plural); hence is plural: therefore the verb should be *have*. The mistake arises through the attraction of *one*.

Cases (*Nouns, Pronouns*).

§ 227. The nominative is used

- (i) as subject: see § 90;
- (ii) to name the person addressed, e.g.—
Come here, *Timothy*.

(a) This usage is called the Nominative of Address, or "Vocative" [*L. voc-are*, "call"].

- (iii) in apposition: see § 225;
- (iv) to complete the predicate after verb of incomplete predication, e.g.—

He *is a man*; he *became king*;
see § 231;

The use of the objective form, instead of the nominative, in the only words where these differ (i.e. the pronouns), is a common source of error: thus we hear

It is *me*, for It is *I*,
Was it *him*, for Was it *he*,

and the like. The usage is only capable of defence on the ground of its being widely spread among the educated classes. Such an expression as

Whom do you think I am?

contains a similar error (*whom* for *who*), but this is probably due to the *whom* being taken as the direct object of *think*.

(v) as factitive predicate in passive constructions, e.g.—

He *was made king*:

see § 230;

(vi) in absolute constructions, e.g.—

This being so, he departed:

see § 238.

§ 228. The objective is used

(i) as direct object of a transitive verb: see § 95;

(ii) in apposition: see § 225;

(iii) as factitive predicate in active constructions, e.g.—

They *made him king*;

(iv) adverbially: see § 206*b*;

(a) Perhaps we may include here rather than under (i) above the objective case of kindred meaning with the intransitive verb which it accompanies: thus "he lives" is an intransitive verb whose meaning we extend without altering its function when we say "he lives a virtuous *life*" (cognate object); cp. he lives *well* (adv.), he lives many *years*, (adverbial objective).

(b) The so-called "retained object" in passive constructions may be classed under this heading—thus if we turn "He gave *me* (indir. obj., see (viii.), below) *a book*" (dir. obj.) into "I was given *a book*," we may call *a book* either "adverbial objective" or "retained object": the latter name is to be preferred.

(v) governed by prepositions : see § 211 ;

(a) A common error is the use of *who* for *whom* when the preposition governing the relative or interrogative does not precede it ; e.g. Who is it written by ?

The man who, as it happened, there had been such a fuss about, was quite innocent.

(vi) after a few adjectives ; e.g., *worth, like, near*.

(vii) in absolute constructions occasionally, but this usage is archaic, e.g. "*Him once out of the way*, they thought to rest."

(a) By an "absolute construction" we mean the use of a noun with some attribute to perform the function of an adverbial clause. In Latin the case employed in this method is the ablative ; in Greek the genitive : in O.E. the dative, whence the modern usage by the decay of inflexions. See § 238.

(viii) an indirect object after a transitive verb, e.g.—

He gave *me* (indir. obj.) a *book* (dir. obj.) ;

He got *me* (indir. obj.) a *cab* (dir. obj.).

(a) While the direct object is the thing upon which the action of the transitive verb is directly exercised, the indirect object may be connected with the verb in various more or less remote ways, including most of the functions of the Latin dative.

§ 229. The possessive is used only as attribute : § 112.

(a) Other relations formerly denoted by the genitive case, are now generally expressed by the preposition *of* and the objective : thus "of a morning" (cp. Ger. *Morgens*), "worthy of death," etc. The main functions of the genitive are generally classified as either *subjective* or *objective*, the genitive in the latter case denoting the object of some action expressed by the word on which it depends : thus

amor dei = (i) the love of God, i.e. love felt towards God (objective) ;

or (ii) God's love, the love felt by God (subjective).

Except in a few instances the Modern English inflected form is always subjective.

Verbs.

§ 230. Many transitive verbs are used with another word (noun, adjective) to point out the result attained by the action of the verb. The word used for this purpose is called a *factitive predicate*: *e.g.*—

They made Edward (*dir. obj.*) king (*factitive predicate*: objective case).

They made Edward (*dir. obj.*) drunk (*fact. pred.*: adj.).

He (*subj.*) was made king (*fact. predicate*: nom.).

He (*subj.*) was made drunk (*fact. pred.*: adj.).

§ 231. Many intransitive verbs require the help of some other word (noun, adj.) to make a clear assertion. Such a verb is called a verb of *incomplete predication*, and the word which helps it to make the assertion is called the *complement* of the predicate: *e.g.*—

He is (*incomplete predic.*) a king (*complement*: nominative).

She seems (*incomp. predic.*) happy (*complement*: adj.).

The Subjunctive Mood.

§ 232. The subjunctive present is very rarely used in Modern English. It sometimes appears in subordinate sentences introduced by *if*, *unless*, *whether*, *though*, and some other particles, with perhaps the idea of insisting on the notions of doubt or futurity more strongly than is already done by the conjunction: *e.g.*—

I shall not come, *if it rain* [uncertainty emphasised—but *rains* (*indic.*) is more common].

§ 233. The subjunctive present is used in inverted conditional sentences, but the construction is not common, and is consciously archaic—

Be it wet or fine, I shall go.

§ 234. The past subjunctive [*to be* is the only verb which has a *form* distinct from the indicative] is used in sentences (generally introduced by *if*) expressing condition: *e.g.*—

I would not do it, if I *were* you.

But *if* (= granting that, on the supposition that), when the condition is in past time, is followed by the indicative: *e.g.*—

Well, if I *was* angry, you must admit you provoked me.

§ 235. The past subjunctive is not uncommon in inverted conditional clauses—

Were this so, he would have told me.

The Verb "Infinitive" [§ 166].

§ 236. The infinitive, without *to*, is used after *let*, *make*, *see*, *feel*, and some other transitive verbs, as well as after the auxiliaries *do*, *can*, *may*, *must*, *shall*: *e.g.*—

Let (imperative) me *see* (inf. depending on *let*) him *do* (inf. dep. on *see*) this.

After other verbs the preposition *to* (which has come to be regarded as a mere sign of the infinitive) is prefixed to the governed verb: *e.g.*—

I *want to* go [where *to-go* is practically a noun, direct obj. of *want*].

(a) Hence we see that if we wish to put such a sentence as the last into the past, we should write "I wanted to go" (just as "I wanted a horse"), and not "I wanted to have gone"; but the erroneous use of the perfect infinitive combination is very common. With *ought*, *must*, however, if used of the past, the tense, owing to their lack of flexions, must be indicated by a perfect infinitive; see § 179.

§ 237. The same form as the infinitive with *to*, is used as a verbal adjective, like the gerundive in Latin, and is generally so called by English grammarians: *e.g.*—

I have a horse *to sell* [= for sale, for selling]. This gerundive infinitive is by origin the dative (governed by *to*) of the simple infinitive treated as a substantive (§ 166).

(a) Observe the difference of construction and meaning in—

- (i) I want to eat something [*to eat*, direct object infinitive after *want*: *something*, direct object of *eat*], and
- (ii) I want something to eat [*something*, direct obj. after *want*: *to-eat*, gerundive infinitive].

§ 238. The present participle, besides being used as (i) simple adjective, and (ii) verbal-adjective governing nouns [§ 166], is also freely used in the absolute construction: that is to say, the nominative [noun, pronoun] combines with the participle without a finite verb to form an adverbial phrase: *e.g.*—

All else failing [= if all else fails], I shall ask her help.

Often the participle *being* is omitted—

His work [being] *finished*, he went home.

She [being] *once happy*, it does not matter what becomes of him.

A common error, connected with the use of the present participle, is exemplified by such sentences as these:

Coming to the town very late, the gates were barred and bolted.
The road seemed very long, walking in thin shoes.

Here *coming*, etc., appears to qualify *gates*: what is meant might be expressed by writing "Coming . . . late, we found the gates barred," etc. So *walking* apparently refers to *road*.

§ 239. The verb-noun in -ing or "gerund" (§ 166) is used now precisely as any other noun, save that it may govern a noun, and be modified by an adverb: *e.g.*—

I see no use in *taking* [objective after *in*] matters [objective after *taking*] so seriously [modifies *taking*].

CHAPTER XIX.

PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

§ 240. In parsing we assign each word of a given phrase or sentence to its class as a part of speech, and state its syntactical relations with other words in the sentence. Certain other details are usually given as below.

[The student may omit at his discretion matter in square brackets.]

Noun or Pronoun—Classification, [Gender], Number, Case.

Adjective—Classification, [Degree].

Verb—Classification, Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, Person, [Conjugation, Principal Parts].

Adverb—Classification, [Degree: if of quality].

Conjunction—Classification.

§ 241. Example of parsing :—

Bear with me ; I am hungry for revenge,
And now I cloy me with beholding it.

Bear—intransitive verb, active, imperative, present, 2nd plural, agreeing with *you* understood. Strong : *bear, bore, borne.*

with—preposition, governing *me*.

me—first personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, singular, objective, governed by *with*.

I—first personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, singular, nominative, subject to *am*.

am—intransitive verb (of incomplete predication), [active], indicative, present, 1st singular, agreeing with *I*.

hungry—adjective of quality, positive, completion of predicate after *am* [or qualifying *I*].

for—preposition, governing *revenge*.

revenge—abstract noun, [neuter], singular, objective, governed by *for*.

and—copulative conjunction, joining *am* to *cloy* [or joining the two sentences *I . . . revenge to now . . . it*].

now—adverb of time, modifying *cloy*.

I—same as *I* above, except that it is subject to *cloy*.

cloy—transitive (reflexive) verb, active, indicative, present, 1st singular, agreeing with *I*.

me—reflexive pronoun, masculine or feminine (same gender as *I*), singular, objective, direct object of *cloy*.

with—preposition, governing *beholding*.

beholding—verb-noun, [neuter], [singular], objective, governed by *with*. [Strong: *behold*, *beheld*, *beheld*.]

it—demonstrative pronoun, neuter, singular, objective, direct object of verb-noun *beholding*.

§ 242. In analysing a simple sentence (*i.e.* one which contains no dependent clause, § 92), we divide it into logical subject and predicate (§ 93); and further subdivide these by indicating—

(i) in the case of the subject any elements which constitute this besides the grammatical subject (§ 93);

(ii) in the case of the predicate by separating object, adverbial adjuncts, etc., from the grammatical predicate (§ 93).

An example will make the method clear.

§ 243. Examples of analysis of simple sentences:—

(i) Homer knew nothing of it.

(ii) They demanded of them from time to time the most precious things.

(iii) The best and the worst of them were the prey of accidents.

- (i) 1. Homer *subject.*
 2. knew *predicate.*
 3. nothing of it *object (direct) of 2.*
- (ii) 1. They *subject.*
 2. demanded *predicate.*
 3. of them *adverbial adjunct to 2.*
 4. from time to time *adverbial adjunct to 2.*
 5. the most precious things } *object (direct) of 2.*
- (iii) 1. The best and the worst of them } *subject.*
 or [(persons) *subject.*
 The, best, the, } *attributes of subject.*
 worst, of them]
 2. were { *predicate (incomplete)*
 or copula.
 3. the prey of accidents *completion of predicate.*

§ 244. Or the analysis may be done in tabular form :—

Subject (and Enlargement).	Predicate (and Completion).	Object (and Enlargement).	Extension of Predicate.
(i) Homer	knew	nothing of it	...
(ii) They	demanded	the most precious things	(1) of them (2) from time to time
(iii) The best and the worst of them	were the prey of accidents

§ 245. Complex sentences—*i.e.* sentences made up of a principal sentence + one or more dependent clauses (Noun-Clause, Adjective-Clause, Adverb-Clause, § 92)—are first analysed as a whole, the dependent clauses being regarded merely as if they were ordinary nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, and then the dependent clauses are analysed separately. The treatment in each case is the same as in principal sentences, as the following examples will show:—

§ 246. Examples of analysis of complex sentences—

(i) Homer knew nothing of it when he wrote.

Complex sentence (*a*) containing one subordinate adverbial clause (*b*) *when he wrote*.

Analysis of *a*—

1. Homer 2. knew 3. nothing of it—as in § 243 above.

4. when he wrote *adverbial adjunct to 2.*

Analysis of *b*—

1. When *connective joining a and b:
adverbial adjunct to 3
below.*

2. he *subject.*

3. wrote *predicate.*

(ii) They demanded of them from time to time the most precious things they had.

Complex sentence (*a*) containing one subordinate adjectival clause (*b*) [that] they had.

Analysis of *a*—

1. They . . . 4. time, as in § 243 above.
5. The most precious things } *object (direct) of 2.*
 [that] they had

Analysis of *b*—

1. [that] *connective joining a and b :
direct object of 3 below.*
2. they *subject.*
3. had *predicate.*

(iii) He declared that the best and the worst of them were the prey of accidents.

Complex sentence (*a*) containing one subordinate noun-clause, (*b*) "the best . . . accidents"

Analysis of *a*—

1. He *subject.*
2. declared *predicate.*
3. that the . . . accidents *direct object of 2.*

Analysis of *b*.

1. that *connective joining a and b.*
 the best, etc., as in § 243 above.

§ 247. Or in tabular form—

Sentence or Clause.	Kind of Sentence or Clause.	Subject and Enlargement.	Predicate and Completion.	Object and Enlargement.	Extension of Predicate.
(a) Homer knew nothing of it (b) when he wrote	Principal Adverbial to <i>knew</i> in a	Homer he	knew wrote	nothing of it .	clause <i>b</i> when
(a) They demanded of them from time to time the most precious things (b) [that] they had	Principal Adjectival to <i>things</i> in a	They they	demanded had	the most precious things that they had [that]	(1) of them (2) from time to time .
(a) He declared (b) that the best and the worst of them were the prey of accidents	Principal Noun-Sentence: object to <i>declared</i> in a	He the best and the worst of them	declared were the prey of accidents	clause <i>b</i> .	.

§ 248. Sentences grammatically independent of one another, but joined by a conjunction, are called co-ordinate, and the whole structure into which they enter is called a compound sentence: it is divided for the purpose of analysis into separate sentences, and then treated as shown above.

§ 249. Example of analysis of compound sentence—

Homer knew nothing of it, and declared that the best of them were not free from accidents.

Compound sentence, consisting of—

A. Homer . . . it
joined by *and* to

B. [he] declared . . . accidents.

The rest of the analysis is as shown in §§ 246-7 above.

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APPENDIX.

CHAPTER XX.

METRE.

§ 250. Prosody treats of the sound and accentuation of syllables when words are arranged in such a way as to produce the harmonious effect known as rhythm. Rhythm is produced by the recurrence of strongly accented syllables at certain intervals.

§ 251. Verse differs from prose in form by possessing more regular and definite rhythm. The arrangement of accented syllables in verse is called metre, and the term is generally applied to a single line of verse, every metrical line being constructed so as to allow the accented syllables to recur at regulated intervals.

§ 252. The metrical line is divided into feet, each foot containing one, and not more than one, accented syllable.

§ 253. The following names are given to the feet most commonly used in English verse:—

Iamb, an unaccented syllable followed by an accented one—*away*.

Trochee, an accented syllable followed by an unaccented one—*fäther*.

Anapaest, two unaccented syllables followed by an accented one—*referée*.

Dactyl, an accented syllable followed by two unaccented ones—*fätherly*.

(a) Each example given above shows a foot formed by a single word; but of course this is not a necessary condition: see the illustrations scanned below.

(b) The names of the feet are retained from the classic system of scansion which depended on quantity (*i.e.* syllable-length), not accent as ours does: e.g. a dactyl was a *long* syllable followed by two short ones. Among the names of other classic feet sometimes applied to English verse, we should notice the *Spondee* (— —).

§ 254. The metre most commonly employed in English is that of the decasyllabic *iambic line*, which normally consists of five iambs; *e.g.*—

The cu'r | few to'lls | the kne'll | of pa'rt | ing da'y.

Many variations, however, are allowed from this exact type, a common one being a trochee in the first place; *e.g.*—

Ea'ch in | his na'r | row ce'll | for e'v | er la'id.

§ 255. Examples of other metrical lines are:—

As thu's | his tro'ub | led mi'nd | disco'urs'd | Anti' |
loch'us | appe'ared.—Chapman (1).

And li'ke | a wou'nd | ed sna'ke | dra'gs its | slow len'gth
| al'ong.—Pope (2).

The wa'y | was lo'ng | the wi'nd | was co'ld.—Scott (3).

And the she'en | of their spe'ars | was like st'ars | on the
se'a.—Byron (4).

Mi'ne | ha'ha | La'ughing | Wa'ter.—Longfellow (5).

Un'der | nea'th this | sa'ble | he'arse.—Browne (6).

Ta'ke her up | te'nderly.—Hood (7).

There are many other kinds of lines, and countless variations of these.

(a) The first of these lines is a seven-footed iambic metre, once very popular. It is the metre of Chapman's "Iliad," but not now much used. There is a pause after the fourth foot (eighth syllable), and the long line thus sometimes appears broken up in two: thus

"How doth the little busy bee
Improve each shining hour."

Line 2 (six iambs with a pause in the middle) is called an Alexandrine; it is the common vehicle of dramatic poetry in France. Line 3 consists of four iambs; line 4 of four anapaests. Line 5 is trochaic (and belongs to a poem written in unrhymed metre). (6) consists of three trochees; and (7) of two dactyls.

(b) The attempt to introduce classic metres in English has given us hexameters in which the accent takes the place of the long syllable. An example (from Longfellow's "Evangeline") is :

Thi's is the | fo'rest prim | a'e'val, the | mu'r'muring | pi'nes and
the | he'mlocks.

Sometimes elegiac couplets, consisting of a hexameter followed by a pentameter, have been successfully written :

Thy's but to | cha'nge idle | fa'ncies for | me'mories | wi'llfully |
fa'l'ser,
Thy's but to | go' and have | be'en. | Co'me, little | ba'rk, let us | go'.

§ 256. Metrical lines are frequently rhymed. Rhyme consists in identity of sound between two (or more) syllables, except as regards the consonantal sounds preceding the vowels of the rhyming syllables. Thus, *meat*—*meet* are not rhymes, but *meet*—*seat* are.

- (a) Rhymes such as *meet*—*seat* are called single rhymes.
Rhymes such as *meeting*—*seating* are called double rhymes.
Rhymes such as *steadily*—*readily* are called triple rhymes.
Rhymes such as *meeting*—*seating* are sometimes called female or feminine.

(b) Where syllables have the same vowel sound, but not the same final sound following it, they are said to be assonant; e.g. *pane*—*fate* are assonances.

(c) Alliteration is the employment of words *beginning* with the same sound : e.g. "Where neither *guilty* *glory* *glows*."

E. L.

§ 257. The metres employed in English are either unrhymed or rhymed. Unrhymed verse is known technically as blank verse, and as the only unrhymed metre commonly employed in English is the decasyllabic iambic (§ 254), the name blank verse is generally employed to mean this.

"Blank verse," says Mr. Thomas Arnold, "is a continuous metre consisting, in its most perfect form, of lines containing five iambuses, each iambus being accented on the last syllable. In other words, it is a decasyllabic metre, having the second, fourth, sixth, eighth, and tenth syllables accented. . . . The following examples illustrate the principal variations which affect (1) the position of the accents; (2) their number; (3) the termination of the line :—

When do'wn | alo'ng | by ple'a | sant Tem'p | e's stre'am (1).
 Le'ft for | rep'en | tance, no'ne | for pa'r | don le'ft (2).
 In'fin | ite wra'th, | and in' | finite | despa'ir } (3).
 Ho'w o | verco'me | this di're | cala'm | ity }
 To the | last sy'l | lable of | reco'rd | ed ti'me (4).
 To-mo'r | row and | to-mo'r | row and | to-mo'r | row (5).
 Who' can | be wi'se, | ama'zed, | te'mperate | and fu' | rious (6).

In (1), a strictly regular line, the accents are five in number and occupy their normal positions. In (2) they are still five, but the first syllable is accented instead of the second. In each of the two examples of (3) there are but four accents, differently placed in each line. In (4) and (5) there are but three accents. In (6) there is one, and in (6) two, redundant syllables.

"In most English decasyllabic verse, whether blank or rimed, the line with four accents predominates. It is often possible to find a dozen lines so accented in Shakspeare and Milton. But in Pope's decasyllabics, as might be expected from so perfect a versifier, the line with five accents predominates. The effect of the variation in the position of the accents is to prevent the monotony which would arise from the perpetual recurrence of iambuses. It answers the same purpose as the free intermixture of dactyls and spondees in the hexameter. The effect of the reduction in the *number* of accents is to quicken the movements of the line. This explains why lines of five accents are the exception, not the rule, in Shakspeare; for the dramatic movement, as representing dialogue, and the actual conflict of passions, is essentially more rapid than either the epic or the

didactic. . . . The licence of redundant syllables is allowed in dramatic, but not epic, verse. Milton does indeed use it, but sparingly."—*Manual of English Literature*.

§ 258. In rhymed metres the lines are disposed into stanzas or "verses," according to the way in which the rhymes recur. There is an endless variety of such arrangements.

One used by several great English poets is the rhyming couplets consisting of two decasyllabic lines; e.g.—

Who would not laugh if such a one there be?
Who would not weep if Atticus were he?

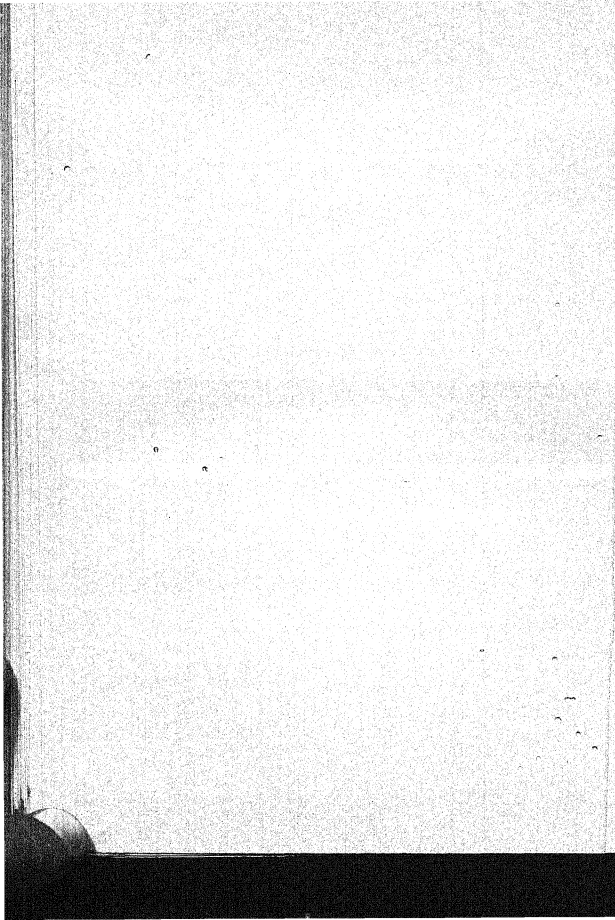
The stanza used by Gray consists of four decasyllabic iambic lines rhyming alternately; see the specimen quoted on p. 17.

(a) It is known as the heroic quatrain, the elegiac stanza, etc.

A four-line stanza of octosyllabic lines in which the first and fourth lines rhyme together, and the second and third rhyme together, has been familiarised by Tennyson's use of it in "In Memoriam":—

Our little systems have their day,
They have their day and cease to be;
They are but broken lights of Thee,
And Thou, O Lord, art more than they.

(b) The sonnet is a stanza of fourteen decasyllabic lines. The Spenserian stanza consists of eight decasyllabic lines and an Alexandrine.



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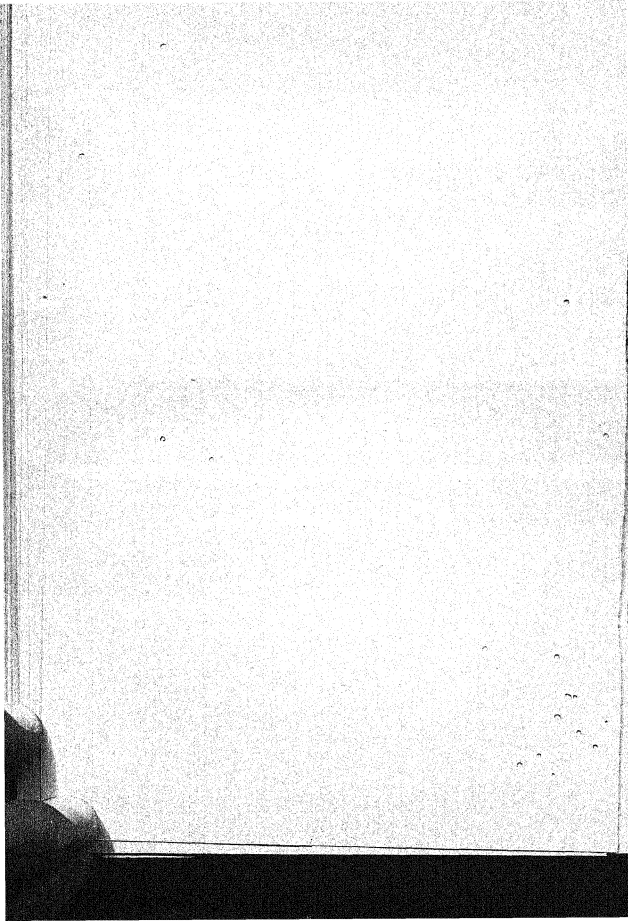
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TEST QUESTIONS.

CHAPTER I.

1. Name the present languages of the British Isles, and also any others that were formerly spoken within them.

2. Express, in tabular form, the relationship of English to the other European languages.

3. What languages had already been spoken in this island or were being spoken when the Anglo-Saxon Conquest took place? Were they in any way akin to the dialects spoken by the Angles and the Saxons?

4. Show, by a table, the relationship of Anglo-Saxon and Modern English to the other Teutonic languages of Europe.

5. Explain carefully the following terms:—*philology, Aryan, Anglo-Saxon, Indo-European, Teutonic, Semitic, Romance, High German.*

6. Explain carefully the following terms:—*Scandinavian, Celtic, Classical, synthetic, analytic, Low German, Gothic, Erse.*

7. What European languages are most closely related to English? Give reasons for your answer.

8. Why is our language called "English" rather than "West-Saxon" or "Mercian"?

9. Give a table of the Indo-European family of languages.

10. Give a detailed table of the Teutonic group of languages.

CHAPTER II.

11. Into what periods may the English language be divided with regard to inflexional changes?

12. English is now an *analytic* language. What do you understand by this?

13. Explain, with illustrations, the difference between a *synthetic* and an *analytic* language.

14. What do you understand by "*the levelling of inflexions*"? How was this *levelling* brought about?

15. Distinguish between Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

16. Estimate the effect of the Scandinavian invasions upon our language.

17. In which parts of England was flexional decay most rapid? Endeavour to account for your facts.

18. Explain, with illustrations, the effect of the Norman Conquest upon our flexional system.

CHAPTER III.

19. What do you know of the origins of the English language?

20. Explain, as carefully as you can, how our language comes to contain so many words of Latin descent. Mention some that we might very well do without, or might well have done without.

21. From what other sources besides Latin have we borrowed words? Show that our vocabulary is constantly being enlarged.

22. On what occasions, and in what ways, have Classical and Romance words entered the English language?

23. Mention six words that English has borrowed from other Teutonic languages, twelve borrowed from the

Romance languages, and twelve from any non-Aryan languages.

24. Show how the languages of the Celts, the Romans, the Danes, and the Normans have, at different times, affected the English tongue.

25. Show how, at different times, foreign words have become part of the English tongue. What is meant by an acclimatized foreign word in English?

26. Briefly show how largely English has borrowed words from other languages. Do you consider this an advantage or a disadvantage?

27. Give as large a list as you can of the Classical words which found their way into our language before the Norman Conquest, and point out how they were probably introduced.

28. Mention *ten* words which have come to us from the Italian, *five* from the Dutch, *five* from the Hebrew, and *ten* from the modern French.

29. Mention *ten* words which have come to us from Asiatic languages, *five* from the Scandinavian, and *five* each from Hebrew and from modern German.

30. Whence have we obtained the following words, and at what period in our history:—*million, veal, yacht, bayonet, delf, odd, waltz, baptize, telephone, boycott*?

31. Whence have we obtained the following words, and at what period in our history:—*galvanize, alphabet, boom, Cambridge, cowl, husting, suffer, barbarous, hiss, coffee*?

32. Whence have we obtained the following words, and at what period in our history:—*locomotive, liege, bush, zareba, caudle, forlorn-hope, poodle, stevedore, macaroni*?

33. Whence have we obtained the following words, and at what period in our history:—*blame, Thames, chutnee, sabbath, admiral, cheroot, gypsy, pemmican, hurricane, polka*?

34. Whence have we obtained the following words, and at what period in our history:—*car, glen, amen, floe, hoist, psychology, father, are, was, sherry*?

35. Divide the words of Latin origin in English into classes according to the periods at which they have been adopted, and give three examples of each class.

36. Discuss fully the Greek element in English.

37. Give an account, with dates, of the introduction of the Latin element into the English language. Write down any ten lines of English poetry, and underline the words of non-Teutonic origin.

38. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

“Underneath this sable hearse
Lies the subject of all verse ;
Sidney's sister, Pembroke's mother.
Death ! Ere thou hast slain another,
Learned, fair and good as she,
Time shall throw a dart at thee.”

39. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

“Not once nor twice in our rough island-story
The path of duty was the road to glory ;
He who walks it, only thirsting
For the right, and learns to deaden
Love of self, before his journey closes,
He shall find the stubborn thistle bursting
Into glossy purples that outredden
All voluptuous garden roses.”

40. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

“My good blade carves the casque of men ;
My tough lance thrasteth sure ;
My faith is as the faith of ten
Because my heart is pure.”

41. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

“Like a toad within a stone
Seated while time crumbles on
Ever since when at the first
For man's transgression earth was cursed.”

42. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

"Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire ;
Hands that the rod of empire might have swayed
Or waked to ecstasy the living lyre."

43. Underline the non-Teutonic words in the following passage :—

"Some murmur when their sky is clear
And wholly bright to view,
If one dark spot of cloud appear
In their great heaven of blue."

44. Mention ten words that have come into our language during the last fifty years.

45. How do we find names for such things as new games, new inventions, new political or social ideas? Give instances.

46. State what you know of the history of every word in the present question, noting any peculiarities in the form or significance of each.

47. On what grounds is English said to be a Teutonic language?

48. Why is our language called English? Do you consider the name an appropriate one?

49. Point out any classes of English words which are purely Teutonic.

CHAPTER IV.

50. Whence have we received the letters of our alphabet? Arrange them according to their sound.

51. Exemplify the facts that in English the same letter represents different sounds, and that different letters represent the same sound. Is there any remedy for such confusion?

52. Classify the sounds of the English language, and show in what way they are represented by the letters of our alphabet.

53. How many sounds has the symbol *a* in English? Also, in what other ways can the vowel sound heard in *hate* be expressed?

54. Show how frequently in English the pronunciation of a word does not correspond with its orthography. How would you account for such discrepancies?

55. Define and explain the terms *letter*, *vowel*, *accent*, *guttural*, *sibilant*. What two different pronunciations has the combination *th*? How many has the combination *ough*?

56. Give as good an account as you can of the letter *a* and its various sounds in English, with examples. How does it come to have so many various sounds?

57. What other permissible spellings are there current of these words:—*inflection*, *programme*, *rhyme*, *era*, *medieval*? What is to be said for or against them?

58. Enumerate and account for the chief anomalies of modern English spelling.

59. Give examples of:—

- (a) a single letter standing for a double sound;
- (b) a letter standing for two or more different sounds;
- (c) two or more letters standing for a single sound;
- (d) different letters representing the same sound.

60. Enumerate, with examples, the different sounds represented by the letter *e*. What is the use of a final *e* mute, in such words as *mine*, *dive*?

61. Explain, as clearly as possible, the difference between soft (voiced) and hard (voiceless) consonants. When is the letter *r* trilled in English?

62. What letters, formerly in use, have disappeared from our alphabet? Which of them do you think we ought to have kept?

63. In what respect is our alphabet unequal to its work? How would you propose to remedy matters?

64. What are the requirements of a perfect alphabet? Briefly criticize our own from this point of view.

65. What do you understand by the term *obscure vowel*?

66. What is meant by a letter? Give some account of the letter *c* and its uses. What various sounds are represented in English by the letter *u*?

67. What is meant by the *organs of speech*? How would you define a vowel? How many more vowel sounds are there in English than vowel symbols?

68. Comment on the spelling of the following words:—*frontispiece, crayfish, fancy, phantom, handiwork, livelihood, posthumous, victuals*.

69. Comment on the spelling of the following words:—*debt, island, isle, eyry, honour, scent, scythe, esquire*.

70. Comment on the spelling of the following words:—*landscape, thunder, hawk, newt, apron, gospel, tyrant, Norfolk*.

71. Which letters do you consider redundant in our alphabet? In what other ways can we represent the sounds of *ch, j, c, and x*?

CHAPTER V.

72. Give some account of what is known as Grimm's Law.

73. State Grimm's Law, and give some illustrations of it.

74. Give the cognate in Classical language of a Teutonic initial aspirate, and explain how it is that there is here an apparent exception to Grimm's Law.

75. Why is Grimm's Law so called? State briefly on what facts the law is based.

76. Give a mnemonic for Grimm's Law. Point out any weak points in the ordinary statement of Grimm's Law.

77. Give the Classical cognates of the following words, and show how you arrive at them:—*brother, daughter, fell (skin), beech, door, ten*.

78. Give the Classical cognates of the following words, and show how you arrive at them:—*guest, nail, slip, wit, tame, fare*.

79. Give the Classical cognates of the following words, and show how you arrive at them:—*fee, heal, hound, child, know, three*.

80. How do you account for the *t* in German *Vater*? What should it be according to Grimm's Law?

81. Point out the difference in *time* between the first and second sound-shiftings.

82. Distinguish between *cognate* and *derived* words. Fully explain, with examples, the term *cognate*.

83. In which series of consonantal sounds is Grimm's Law most consistently carried out? Can it be said to be carried out at all in the other series?

CHAPTER VI.

84. Define a *root*, an *English root*. What are hybrids? Mention any *hybrids* that are generally recognized as good English.

85. How is it that *hybrids* are so frequently met with in English? Illustrate your answer by examples.

86. Distinguish between *cognate* and *derived*, as applied to words. Mention some words cognate with *bear* (verb), and some derived from it.

87. What do you understand by the term *Umlaut*? How is it caused? Give examples.

88. How would you attempt to find the root of an ordinary English word, *e.g.*, *comprehension*? Give a few illustrative examples.

89. Distinguish between *root* and *stem* in English. Are they ever identical?

90. Explain the terms *suffix*, *prefix*, *affix*. Illustrate their use in word-formation.

91. What do you understand by *Ablaut* (gradation)? Where do we find the best examples of it?

92. State briefly, with examples, how from a few roots many words are built up. Give the roots of the following words:—*stationary, reduction, illumination.*

CHAPTER VII.

93. Explain what is meant by:—*metathesis, aphæresis, syncope, prosthesis.*

94. Explain the terms:—*inflection, assimilation, etymology, phonetics, accident.*

95. Account for the facts that:—

- (1) The *s* in *roads* and *robes* is sounded as *z*;
- (2) The *d* in *hoped* and *missed* is sounded as *t*;
- (3) The *p* in *Campbell* and *cupboard* is not sounded at all.

96. Point out the changes or additions that have taken place in the letters in the following words:—*gossip, number, esquire, master*, and cite other words in illustration.

97. Point out the letter changes or additions of letters that have taken place in the following words:—*amidst, kindred, bathe, knives, thimble, sugar, whence, loud.*

98. Comment on the form of the words *rain, fowl, stail, adder, apron, umpire, nickname, newt.*

CHAPTER VIII.

99. How and when did we acquire the Romance words which are to be found in our language?

100. Give half-a-dozen examples of French words and phrases that have come into our language during recent years. Do you consider their adoption an advantage or a disadvantage?

101. "There are two distinct classes of Romance words in our language: (1) those of learned formation; (2) those of popular origin." Explain briefly the meaning of this.

102. Why is it that the surviving forms of Romance words are usually shorter than the original Latin ones? Give a few illustrative examples.

103. Mention some ten Latin words that appear in English in two forms, one derived directly, the other indirectly. Give both English forms as well as the Latin one. What are such pairs of words called?

Trace the following Romance words to their original forms, and account for the changes that have taken place:—

104. *Sure, frail, poison, trouble, story, impatient, count, allow.*

105. *Ostler, diamond, strange, estate, establish, howl, chamber, envy.*

106. *Season, treason, ransom, maugre, essay, chattel, spouse.*

107. State, with illustrations, anything you know about the effects of accent in English.

108. "In the passage of words from Latin to English (usually through French) the accented syllable survives, the following unaccented ones disappear or are reduced to *e* mute." Illustrate this by means of examples.

CHAPTER IX.

109. How are words grouped with reference to their grammatical usage? In which group or groups do you place *than, but, divine, single, that, while*?

110. Define the several parts of speech.

111. Give the arguments for and against the recognition of the English article as a distinct part of speech. Define a part of speech.

112. Define the term *grammar*. What is meant by calling a mode of expression *ungrammatical*?

113. Define inflexion, and account for its partial disappearance from our language.

114. What parts of speech in English have to some extent retained their inflexions? Endeavour to explain your facts.

115. Define the terms *accidence*, *syntax*, *subject*, *predicate*, *sentence*. Why is a sentence spoken of as *the unit of speech*?

116. How are sentences classed? Illustrate your answer by examples.

117. Define the terms *transitive* and *intransitive* as applied to verbs. Derive these terms.

CHAPTER X.

118. Define the term *noun*. Into what classes are nouns divided? Give definitions and illustrations in each case.

119. What English nouns have no change of form, either in the singular or in the plural number? Account for this.

120. Describe, giving examples, the various ways of distinguishing the plural number of English nouns by suffix.

121. Show that the addition of the plural sign *s* altogether alters the meaning of many English words.

122. Write down the plural of *galloos*, *topaz*, *solo*, *echo*, *Mary*. Mention some word in whose plural form there is variety of usage, and some that have been wrongly taken for plurals, though really singular.

123. How would you describe the *number* of the following words:—*alms*, *banns*, *heronries*, *optics*, *poultry*, *pride*, *salmon*, *scissors*, *sheep*, *sixpences*, *thanks*, *wheat*?

124. Give a list of double plurals of English nouns, in

which one form has the *collective idea* and the other the *distributive idea*.

125. Describe carefully the different ways of forming the plural of nouns in English, stating what you know of the history of each.

126. Are the following words strictly of the singular or the plural number :—*caves, tidings, alms, news, riches, means*? Are there any words that have only a singular form, and any that have only a plural form?

127. Discuss the plural form *children*. Write down *six* nouns that have no special form to express plurality. Is it correct to speak of "a two-foot rule"?

128. Mention any English nouns which form their plurals by processes generally obsolete. Which of the following are genuine plurals, and how do you account for the forms which are not such :—*alms, summons, banns, costs, sessions, weeds, dice*?

129. Discuss each of these plural forms :—*leaves, oxen, kine, men, brethren*; also the forms *news, gains, riches, eaves*?

130. Explain how it is that *s* has become practically the only suffix used to form the plural of nouns. Do you think that any foreign influence is traceable here?

131. Explain clearly why *roof* and *brief* take simply *s* in the plural, while *calf* and *leaf* change the *f* into *ves*.

132. What is the rule for the formation of the plural of nouns ending in *y*? Give the plural forms of *lady, chimney, Nancy, soliloquy*.

133. Give examples of *mutation plurals* and plurals in *en* that are still in use. Mention any plurals in *en* that occur in the Authorised Version of the Bible, but are now obsolete.

134. Write brief notes on the following plural forms :—*kine, brethren, children, women*.

135. Give ten examples of foreign words which retain their original plural forms.

136. Distinguish between the two plurals of *index*, *formula*, *fungus*, *cherub*, *genius*.

137. Which of the following do you consider to be genuine plurals :—*amends*, *riches*, *alms*, *means*, *banns*, *eaves*, *politics*, *summons*?

138. Give rules for forming the plurals of compound nouns. Give the plurals of the following words, with comments where you think fit :—*spoonful*, *Lord Chancellor*, *farewell*, *heir-apparent*, *mother-in-law*, *turnkey*.

139. Give the plurals of the following compound nouns, adding any comment you think fit :—*Good Templar*, *looker-on*, *Lord-Lieutenant*, *Commander-in-Chief*, *Judge Advocate General*, *court-martial*, *Will-o'-the-wisp*, *lady's-maid*.

Give the plurals of the following nouns, adding such comment as you think necessary :—

140. *Euclid*, *pain*, *ember*, *breech*, *rhinoceros*, *monsteur*, *Mr.*, *wage*, *Miss Brown*, *copper*, *compass*, *draught*, *beef*, *chap*, *scale*, *light*, *shot*, *ground*.

141. *Bookseller*, *good*, *spectacle*, *water*, *hippopotamus*, *crisis*, *radius*, *seraph*, *vortex*, *lee*.

142. *Die*, *hose*, *cow*, *stratum*, *flag-lieutenant*, *iron*, *attorney-general*, *arm*, *beau*, *focus*.

143. What is meant by the *case* of a noun? How did the word come to be used in such a sense?

144. Trace, with illustrations, the decline of inflexion in English.

145. Explain clearly the method of forming the possessive case in English.

146. Discuss these phrases :—*next Lady-day*, *for conscience's sake*, *a friend of mine*, *the Emperor of Germany's accession*, *the Queen's rebels*, *for John his sake*.

147. Form the possessive case of the following :—*boys*, *princess*, *princesses*, *Wednesday*, *St. James*, *Mr. Jones*, *feet*, *child*.

148. In what various ways can difference of sex be denoted by English nouns? Explain the forms *widower*, *mistress*, *gander*, *bridegroom*.

149. Make a list of the different ways of expressing gender in English nouns, adding a few notes on the history of each.

150. Explain the following words:—*woman*, *lady*, *vixen*, *sempstress*, *widower*, *drake*.

151. What is meant by *gender* in grammar? Enumerate the various ways of indicating *gender* in English. Comment on the forms:—*songster*, *tapster*, *he-goat*, *punster*, *songstress*.

152. Comment on the following forms:—*marchioness*, *miss*, *heroine*, *landgravine*, *abbess*, *goddess*, *nurse*, *testatrix*, *infanta*, *sow*.

153. Give the feminine forms of the following:—*hero*, *bachelor*, *earl*, *monk*, *nephew*, *lord*, *lad*, *bull*, *stag*, *millar*. Add any comments you think fit.

154. Give ten instances in which distinction of sex is denoted by words of quite separate origin, and explain in some, at least, of them why it is so.

155. What do you understand by the expressions:—*neuter gender*, *common gender*? To what extent may *gender* be said to exist in English grammar?

156. Enumerate the chief ways of forming compound nouns in English. Give ten examples.

157. Comment briefly on the following compound nouns:—*he-goat*, *passer-by*, *spendthrift*, *witchcraft*, *handicraft*, *handiwork*, *mankind*, *housewife*, *potsherd*, *nickname*.

158. Comment briefly on the formation of the following words:—*Gaelic*, *ban-dog*, *bridal*, *gospel*, *nostril*, *orchard*, *barn*, *harbour*.

159. Comment briefly on the formation of the following words:—*steward*, *lady*, *huzzey*, *brimstone*, *stirrup*, *lammas*, *tadpole*, *neighbour*.

160. Comment briefly on the formation of the following

words:—*lord, fortnight, shamefaced, handkerchief, constable, frontingale, husband, walnut.*

161. Comment briefly on the formation of the following words:—*good-bye, mandrake, pickle, wormwood, wassail, frontispiece, landscape, twilight.*

162. Give a list of the chief suffixes used to form abstract nouns in English.

163. What is the original meaning of the suffixes: *-dom, -hood, -ship*? Comment on the forms *Godhead, livelihood.*

164. What do you know of the suffixes in the following words:—*barley, wedlock, hemlock, hillock, hatred, bishopric*?

165. Give a list of the chief agent suffixes to be found in English nouns. Comment on the forms:—*maltster, spinster, rhymester, widower, sailor.*

166. Give a list of the chief diminutive suffixes in English, with examples.

167. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*Browning, riding, width, gentleness, gentility, gosling, welkin, chicken*?

168. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*heathen, darling, tailor, chemist, singer, livelihood, husband, orchard*?

169. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*steward, butler, deemster, knowledge, maidenhood, firkin, faith, paddock*?

170. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*fishmonger, skipper, kindred, drake, damsel, fashion, venison, cabinet*?

171. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*sentiment, ticket, voyage, passenger, danger, closure, civility, stevedore*?

172. What is the force of the suffix in each of the following nouns:—*catechism, Jacobite, agony, endurance, mathematics, magistrate, circus, donkey*?

CHAPTER XI.

173. How would you define a pronoun? And how classify the words so called?

174. Decline the three personal pronouns, and comment on their history.

175. Discuss the etymology and usage of *me*, *thee*, *my* and *mine*, *our* and *ours*, *their* and *theirs*, *who* and *what*, *why* and *which*.

176. Name the adjectival pronouns, discussing the etymology and usage of each.

177. Notice any differences in usage between the relatives *that*, *who*, *which*.

178. What do you understand by a pronoun? What by a reflexive pronoun? Point out the inconsistency of saying *I myself*, and yet *he himself*.

179. Decline the first and second personal pronouns, and discuss the variations in usage of them at different times.

180. Discuss the etymology and usage of the masculine possessive *his*; and the neuter possessive *its*.

181. Write a short history of the second personal pronoun.

182. Trace, as fully as you can, the history of the inflexions of the third personal pronoun, singular and plural.

183. Discuss the origin of the relative pronouns, and distinguish their use in modern English. What equivalents are there in English for the relative pronoun? Give illustrative sentences.

184. Why is it that we have only one form *him*, *her*, *whom*, for accusative and dative?

185. Discuss briefly, with regard to origin, the forms *she*, *its*. What is meant by a reflexive pronoun?

186. Give a list of the indefinite pronouns. What is a relative pronoun?

187. Comment on the different usages of the word *that*. What do you understand by the term *possessive pronoun*?

CHAPTER XII.

188. Define an adjective. What kinds of adjectives admit of comparison?

189. Give examples of adjectives used as nouns. Derive the term adjective.

190. Explain, with examples, the different methods of comparing adjectives.

191. Comment on the following forms :—*further, farther, rather, nearer, later, latter*.

192. What are our commonest adjectival suffixes? What adjectives have we corresponding to the nouns, *parish, cat, horse, alms, church, bishop*?

193. Discuss the adjectives *perfect, golden, lunar, French*. Do they admit of comparison?

194. Explain the words :—*fourteen, twenty, Riding* (as in *North Riding*), *fortnight, farthing, dozen, hundred, score, million, eleven*.

195. Discuss the forms *aught, naught, none, for the nonce, willy nilly, each, sundry*.

196. Compare *dry, complete, old, unhappy, near, late, far*. What kinds of adjectives do not admit of comparison?

197. In what various ways has the comparative of adjectives been at any time formed in English? Explain the forms *elder, inferior, worse, lesser*. State which, if any, of them are comparatives according to present usage.

198. Which of our numerals are non-Teutonic? Comment on the forms :—*twain, eleven, hundred, twenty*.

199. Mention some of the chief Teutonic suffixes used in forming adjectives. Comment on the forms:—*righteous, either, heartless, godly*.

200. Comment on the adjectival forms:—*beloved, loving, bidden, backward, forward, froward, other, rather, brazen*.

201. Comment on the adjectival forms:—*dusty, second, third, childish, sensible, respectable, crystalline, social*.

202. Comment on the adjectival forms:—*prudent, senile, tremendous, captive, yellow, stupid, dissolute, picturesque, choleric*.

203. Point out the relics of any other method of forming the superlative than the addition of *-est*.

204. Give examples of double comparative and double superlative forms, and of forms combining both signs.

205. Comment on the forms:—*inmost, uttermost, former, foremost, first, uppermost, furthestmost*.

CHAPTER XIII.

206. Define a verb. How far are we justified in regarding the verb as the most important of the parts of speech?

207. Distinguish between strong and weak verbs. On what principle are strong verbs classified?

208. Show that *think, teach, will*, do not belong to the strong conjugation, in spite of their change of vowel, and state exactly what are the marks of the strong conjugation.

209. Define *infinitive, strong verb, weak verb, present participle, verbal noun, auxiliary verb*.

210. Define, giving examples, *transitive verb, intransitive verb, impersonal verb, verb of incomplete predication*.

211. To which conjugation do these verbs belong:—*bring, fight, read, hang, beseech, go*?

212. Show that the weak is our living conjugation. Why is it called weak? What other names for it are suggested?

213. What do you mean by conjugation? Explain briefly the use of each of the different moods in English.

214. Give instances of verbs that can be used both transitively and intransitively; also of some that can be used both as complete predicates and as incomplete; also of some that can be used both as auxiliaries and as ordinary verbs.

215. Mention some strong verbs in which the *n* of the past participle has dropped off; some in which the preterite has come to be used as the past participle; and some which have two forms of the preterite.

216. Show from still familiar forms that *melt*, *move*, *shave*, *swell*, were once of the strong conjugation: and write down the past participles of *shoe*, *light*, *work*, *knit*, *speed*.

217. Explain fully how the loss of inflexions is supplied in English verbs.

218. Explain the correct usage of *shall* and *will*.

219. What part of speech is the infinitive? Distinguish between the simple infinitive and the dative infinitive.

220. Show how the present conjugation of *shall* and *will* illustrates their origin, and mention any phrases or derivatives in which the primary meaning of either appears to survive.

221. To which conjugation do the following verbs belong:—*fight*, *teach*, *hide*, *do*, *flow*, *flee*, *fly*, *tell*, *toll*?

222. How are weak verbs classified?

223. Distinguish between the infinitive and the gerund in modern English: and discuss the forms in *-ing* in the following sentence:—"John and two *fishing* friends started off early this morning, with their *fishing* rods, to the river; but *fishing* was bad to-day, so they have come back empty-handed."

224. (a) The *hanging* pictures. (b) The *hanging* of the pictures. Explain the difference between the two words in italics. What is the original form of the suffix *-ing* in each case?

225. Discuss the following verbal forms in italics:—
(a) How *do you do*? (b) I *do* you to *wit*. (c) Woe *worth*
the day. (d) He that hath ears to *hear*, let him hear.

226. Mention some strong verbs that have become weak. Have any originally weak verbs taken strong forms?

227. Account for the following forms:—*told, sought, caught, could, must, wit, are, went, ought, bright.*

228. What do you understand by the expression *strong-weak verb*? Discuss the forms, *must, could, should, durst.*

229. Explain the difference in usage between *melted* and *molten*, *shaved* and *shorn*, *engraved* and *graven*, *mowed* and *mown*.

230. How do you account for the marked differences in the forms of the verb *to be*?

231. What traces of reduplication are there in the language? Account for the *l* in *could*.

232. Define *tense*. Give examples of the following tenses:—*present continuous, past perfect, imperfect, future perfect.*

233. Explain and account for the difference in accent between *present* (noun), *present* (verb), *compound* (adj.), *compound* (verb), *frequent* (adj.), *frequent* (verb).

234. Cite six derived words with English, six with Latin, six with Greek, and six with French suffixes.

235. Give a list of the chief Teutonic verbal suffixes, and explain the force of each.

236. Explain the force of the suffix in each of the following verbs:—*edify, gladden, glimmer, busk, clasp, punish, tremble.*

in the force of the prefix in each of the following:—*undo, besmear, abstract, contradict, with-*

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force of the prefix in each of the following:—*arise, wanton, disgust, survive, translate, seize, neglect.*

CHAPTER XV.

263. Define a preposition. How are prepositions usually classified?

264. Why are prepositions so called? Discuss the use of *past* in "He went *past* the house"; of *of* in "The Island *of* Great Britain"; of *by* in "Do your duty *by* the University."

265. Give the origin and meaning of:—*save, but, between, notwithstanding, during*.

266. Give examples of the different senses in which *by, to, with*, are used.

267. How are prepositions formed? Give examples of prepositions formed from nouns, adverbs, other prepositions.

268. What are verbal prepositions? Give a list of them explaining fully their history and usage.

269. Comment on the forms:—*till, off, near, over, aboard, beside, during, notwithstanding, save*.

CHAPTERS XVI. & XVII.

270. What is a *conjunction*? How are conjunctions usually classified?

271. What do you mean by subordinating conjunctions? How are they classified? Give an example of each class.

272. Explain clearly the office of the conjunction in language, and comment on the following forms:—*a' a-day, and, marry, hist, lawk-a-mussy*.

CHAPTER XVIII.

273. Point out any six grammatical errors that are common in ordinary colloquial speech.

274. Correct or justify :—

- (a) "It is me."
- (b) "I intended to have written to you."
- (c) "The people is one; they have all one language."
- (d) "And when they arose, early in the morning, behold they were all dead corpses."

275. Correct or justify :—

- (a) "I love you more than him."
- (b) "The wages of sin is death."
- (c) "I often lay down of a morning."
- (d) "Being very hungry, the hotel was a welcome-refuge to the party."

276. Correct or justify :—

- (a) "I will be drowned: nobody shall help me."
- (b) "England's Mediterranean power was in danger."
- (c) "They attacked Northumberland's house, whom they put to death."
- (d) "Have you heard of your son's robbery?"

277. Correct or justify :—

- (a) "When I got there, he *was* gone out of the house."
- (b) "He leaned his head on his hands, and in a moment was gone."
"I *shall* detain you no longer, but *will* point out the road to you at once."
- (d) "For not to have been dipped in Lethe's stream Could save the son of Thetis from to die."

278. Correct or justify:—

- (a) "The mob is cruel; they are ignorant."
- (b) "A feeble, harsh, or obscure style are serious faults."
- (c) "Each of them were ready to die."
- (d) "Homer as well as Vergil were read."

279. Correct or justify:—

- (a) "Full many a flower is born to blush unseen."
- (b) "Oh! I am the cook and the captain bold,
And the mate of the *Nancy* brig."
- (c) "He had lost his wife while he was Governor
of Jamaica."
- (d) "You may do what you have done a century
ago."

280. Quote six examples of incorrect English you have noticed in conversation, and point out the error in each case.

281. Parse *please* in "Please write clearly"; *thank* in "Thank you"; *like* in "If you like"; *bad* in "From bad to worse"; *you* in "Get you gone."

282. Correct or justify:—

- (a) "I don't like those sort of people."
- (b) "He aggravated me."
- (c) "Was it him?"

283. Give a list of verbs after which the infinitive should be used.

CHAPTER XIX.

Analyse the following, and parse the words in italics :—

284.

"*Good* unexpected, evil unforeseen,
Appear *by turns*, as fortune shifts the scene :
Some, praised aloft, come *tumbling* down amain,
Then fall *so* hard, they bound and rise again."

285.

"To a huntsman
His toil is *his* delight, and *to complain*
Of weariness would show as poorly in him
As if a general should grieve for a wound
Received upon his forehead, or his *breast*,
After a glorious victory."

286.

"The aged man, *that* coffers up his gold,
Is plagued with cramps, and gout, and painful fits,
And *scarce* hath eyes his treasure to behold ;
But still like *pining* Tantalus he sits,
And useless *bans* the harvest of his wits,
Having no other pleasure of his gain
But torment, *that* it cannot cure his pain."

287.

"Sloth makes *all* things difficult, but industry *all easy* ; and he
that riseth late must trot all day, and shall scarce overtake his
business *at night* ; while laziness travels so slowly *that* poverty soon
overtakes him."

288.

"Circles are prais'd, not *that* abound
In largeness, *but th' exactly round* ;
So life we praise that does excel
Not in much time, but *acting well*."

289.

—“ *Where love reigns, disturbing jealousy
Doth call himself affliction's sentinel,
Give false alarms ; suggesteth mutiny,
And, in a peaceful hour, doth cry kill, kill.*”

290.

“ The bride kissed the goblet. The knight took it *up*,
He quaffed off the wine, and he threw down the cup.
She looked down to *blush*, and she looked up to sigh,
With a smile on her lip, and a tear in her eye.
He took her soft hand *ere* her mother could bar ;
‘ Now *tread* we a measure !’ said young Lochinvar.”

291.

“ Though a soldier, in time of peace, is *like* a chimney in summer,
yet *what* wise man would pluck down his chimney *because* his
almanack tells him ‘tis the middle of June ?”

292.

“ *Therefore* at Pentecost, which brings
The spring, clothed *like* a bride,
When *nestling* buds unfold their wings,
And bishop's-caps have golden rings,
Musing upon many things,
I *sought* the woodlands *wide*.”

293.

“ *Pleasant it was*, when woods were green,
And winds were soft and low,
To lie amid some sylvan scene,
Where, the long drooping boughs *between*,
Shadows dark and sunlight *sheen*
Alternate come and ‘go.’”

294.

“ There is not a man in the world, *but* desires to be, or to be *thought*
to be, a wise man ; and yet if he considered how little he contributes
himself thereunto, he might wonder to *find* himself in any tolerable
degree of *understanding*.”

295.

“ *Up* with it high ; unfurl it wide ; *that* all the host may know
How God *hath* *humbled* the proud house which *wrought* His
Church such woe.”

296.

"*Having heard* that the cadi of one of his twelve tribes administered justice in an admirable *manner*, and pronounced decisions *in a style* worthy of King Solomon himself, Bou-Akas determined to judge for himself *as to* the truth of the report."

297.

"*Oh*, it was a time *forlorn*,
When the fatherless was born !
Give her wings *that* she *may fly*
Or she sees her infant *die* !"

298.

"*Of* man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of *that* forbidden tree, *whose* mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe
With loss of Eden, *till* one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, heavenly muse !"

299

"Thammuz came next *behind*,
Whose *annual* wound in Lebanon *allured*
The Syrian damsels to lament his fate,
In am'rous ditties *all a summer's day* ;
While smooth Adonis from his native rock
Ran purple to the sea, *supposed* with blood
Of Thammuz *yearly wounded*."

300.

"*So let it rest* : and time *will come*
When here the tender-hearted
May heave a gentle sigh for him,
As one of the departed."

301.

"*Beside* yon straggling fence *that skirts* the way,
With *blossomed* furze unprofitably gay,
There, in his noisy mansion, *skilled to rule*,
The village master *taught* his little school."

302.

"*The way of fortune* is like the milky way in the sky ; which is a meeting or knot of a number of small stars, *not seen asunder*, but giving light together ; *so are there* a number of little and scarce discerned virtues, or *rather* faculties and customs, *that make men fortunate*."

303.

"*In that same hour and hall, the fingers of a hand
Came forth against the wall, and wrote as if on sand :
The fingers of a man ;—a solitary hand
Along the letters ran, and traced them like a wand.*"

304.

"Three poets in three distant ages *born*,
Greece, Italy, and England *did adorn*.
The first in loftiness of thought surpassed,
The next in majesty ; *in both the last*.
The force of nature could no further go ;
To make a third *she joined* the other two."

305.

"*To-morrow, ere fresh morning streaks the east
With first approach of light, we must be risen,
And at our pleasant labour, to reform
Yon flowery arbours.*"

306.

"*Thus Satan, talking to his nearest mate,
With head uplift above the wave, and eyes
That sparkling blazed ; his other parts beside
Prone on the flood, extended long and large,
Lay floating many a rood.*"

307.

"*Then when he saw it could hold no more,
Bishop Hatto he made fast the door ;
And while for mercy on Christ they call,
He set fire to the barn and burned them all.*"

308.

"*Near yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
And still where many a garden flower grows wild ;
There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.*"

309.

"You saw the greatest warrior of the age — conqueror of Italy,
humbler of Germany, terror of the North,—you saw him account all
his matchless victories poor compared with the triumph which you
are now in a condition to win !"

in the war with English, might be thrown off

310.

"From every clime *they come*
To see thy beauty, and to share thy joy,
 O Sion! an assembly such as earth
Saw never, such as heaven stoops down to see."

311.

Ho! Philip, send, *for charity*, thy Mexican pistoles,
That Antwerp monks may sing a mass for thy poor spearmen's souls."

312

"Love had he found in huts *where poor men lie*;
His daily teachers had been woods and rills,
 The silence that is in the starry sky,
 The sleep that is among the lonely hills."

313.

"For swift to east and swift to west the ghastly war-flame spread;
 High on St. Michael's Mount it shone; it *shone* on Beachy Head.
 Far on the deep the Spaniard saw, along each southern shire,
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, *those twinkling points of fire.*"

314.

"The castled crag of Drachenfels
 Frowns o'er the wide and winding Rhine,
Whose breast of waters broadly swells
 Between the banks that bear the vine;
 And hills all rich with blossomed trees,
 And fields which promise corn and wine
 And scattered cities *crowning these*,
Whose far white walls along them shine,
 Have strowed a scene which I should see
 With double joy *were thou with me.*"

315.

"If the government of any other country contains an insurrectionary principle, *as France did* when she offered to aid the insurrection of her neighbours, *your interference is warranted*; if the government of another country contains the principle of universal empire, *as France did*, *and promulgated*, your interference is justifiable."

316.

"With thy clear keen joyance
Languor cannot be :
Shadow of annoyance
Never came near thee :
Thou lovest ; but ne'er knew love's sad satiety."

317.

"He now prepared
To speak ; whereat their doubled ranks they bend
From wing to wing, and half enclose him round
With all his peers : attention held them mute.
Thrice he essayed, and thrice, in spite of scorn,
Tears, *such as angels weep, burst forth.*"

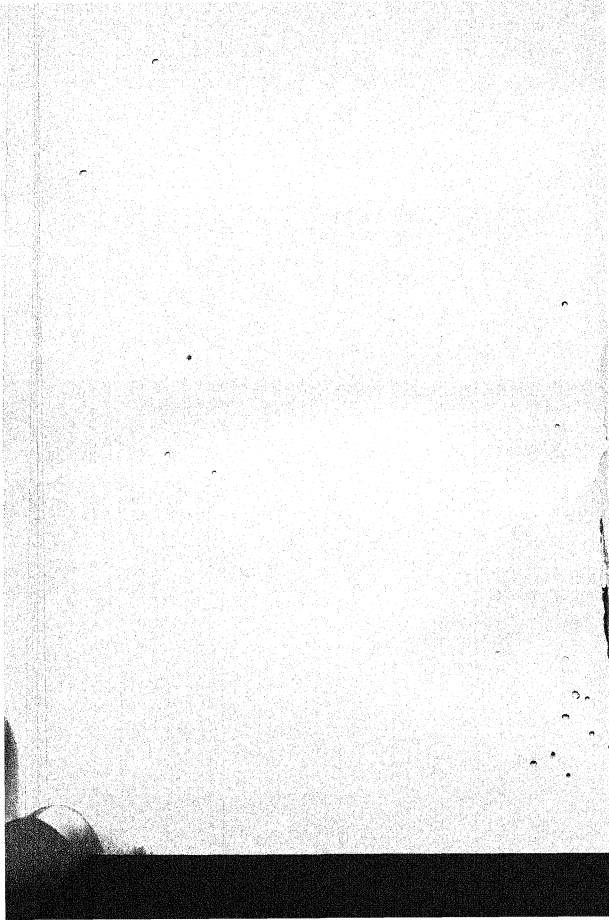
CHAPTER XX.

318. What do you understand by :—*rhyme, rhythm, alliteration, metre, assonance* ? Give examples in each case.

319. Which spelling do you prefer, *rhyme* or *rime* ? Give reasons for your preference.

320. Give an account of three or four *metres* that you have met with in English poetry. What do you understand by *blank verse* ?

in the war with English, might be thrown off his guard by his own



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